

# BULLETIN

OF THE

# DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

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EDITOR,  
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## CONTENTS OF VOLUME VI.

---

### No. 32.—JANUARY, 1901.

	Page.
Accidents to labor as regulated by law in the United States, by W. F. Willoughby, of the Department of Labor.....	1-28
Prices of commodities and rates of wages in Manila.....	29-42
The Negroes of Sandy Spring, Md.: A social study, by William Taylor Thom, Ph. D.....	43-102
The British workmen's compensation act and its operation, by A. Maurice Low.....	103-132
Digest of recent reports of State bureaus of labor statistics:	
Kansas .....	133-135
Maryland.....	135, 136
Michigan .....	136-139
Ohio .....	139, 140
Tennessee .....	140, 141
Fourteenth annual report of the board of arbitration and conciliation of Massachusetts .....	141
Digest of recent foreign statistical publications.....	142-150
Decisions of courts affecting labor.....	151-162
Laws of various States relating to labor enacted since January 1, 1896.....	163-172

### No. 33.—MARCH, 1901.

Foreign labor laws, by W. F. Willoughby, of the Department of Labor....	173-304
The British conspiracy and protection of property act and its operation, by A. Maurice Low .....	305-322
Digest of recent reports of State bureaus of labor statistics:	
Connecticut.....	323, 324
North Carolina.....	324-326
Pennsylvania .....	327-330
West Virginia.....	330, 331
State reports on building and loan associations:	
California.....	332, 333
New York .....	333, 334
Digest of recent foreign statistical publications.....	335-341
Decisions of courts affecting labor .....	342-362
Laws of various States relating to labor enacted since January 1, 1896.....	363-376

## No. 34.—MAY, 1901.

	Page.
Labor conditions in Porto Rico, by Azel Ames, M. D. ....	377-439
Social economics at the Paris Exposition, by Prof. N. P. Gilman .....	440-489
The workmen's compensation act of Holland.....	490-493
Digest of recent reports of State bureaus of labor statistics:	
New York .....	494-498
Ohio .....	498, 499
Digest of recent foreign statistical publications:	
Strikes and lockouts—	
Austria .....	500-505
France .....	505-512
Germany .....	512-516
Great Britain .....	516-522
Decisions of courts affecting labor .....	523-558
Laws of various States relating to labor enacted since January 1, 1896.....	559-562

## No. 35.—JULY, 1901.

Cooperative communities in the United States, by Rev. Alexander Kent ...	563-646
The Negro landholder of Georgia, by W. E. Burghardt Du Bois, Ph. D., of Atlanta University .....	647-777
Digest of recent reports of State bureaus of labor statistics:	
California.....	778, 779
Colorado .....	779-782
Indiana.....	782-784
Missouri .....	784, 785
New Hampshire.....	786, 787
Seventh annual report of the Ohio State board of arbitration .....	787
Digest of recent foreign statistical publications.....	788-796
Decisions of courts affecting labor.....	797-812

## No. 36.—SEPTEMBER, 1901.

Statistics of cities.....	813-958
Statistics of Honolulu, H. I. ....	959-962
Digest of recent reports of State bureaus of labor statistics:	
Connecticut.....	963-966
Minnesota .....	966-970
Digest of recent foreign statistical publications.....	971-975
Decisions of courts affecting labor.....	976-996
Laws of various States relating to labor enacted since January 1, 1896.....	997-1022

## No. 37.—NOVEMBER, 1901.

Railway employees in the United States, by Samuel McCune Lindsay, Ph. D., of the University of Pennsylvania.....	1023-1114
The Negroes of Litwalton, Va.: A social study of the "Oyster Negro," by Wil- liam Taylor Thom, Ph. D.....	1115-1170
Digest of recent reports of State bureaus of labor statistics:	
Maine .....	1171-1173
Maryland.....	1173, 1174
Michigan .....	1174-1177
North Dakota.....	1177, 1178
Fifteenth annual report of the board of arbitration and conciliation of Mass..	1178
Digest of recent foreign statistical publications.....	1179-1194
Decisions of courts affecting labor.....	1195-1206
Laws of various States relating to labor enacted since January 1, 1896 .....	1207-1216



LABOR CONDITIONS IN MEXICO.  
THE SUGAR PLANTATION NEGRO.

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## REPORTS PUBLISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

### ANNUAL.

1886. First,	Industrial Depressions .....	496 pag
1886. Second,	Convict Labor (out of print) .....	612
1887. Third,	Strikes and Lockouts (Jan. 1, 1881, to Dec. 31, 1886) (out of print) .....	1172
1888. Fourth,	Working Women in Large Cities .....	631
1889. Fifth,	Railroad Labor (out of print) .....	888
1890. Sixth,	Cost of Production: Iron, Steel, Coal, etc. ....	1404
1891. Seventh,	Cost of Production: The Textiles and Glass (2 vols.) .	2048
1892. Eighth,	Industrial Education .....	707
1893. Ninth,	Building and Loan Associations .....	719
1894. Tenth,	Strikes and Lockouts (Jan. 1, 1887, to June 30, 1894) (2 vols.) (out of print) .....	1909
1895-96. Eleventh,	Work and Wages of Men, Women, and Children....	671
1897. Twelfth,	Economic Aspects of the Liquor Problem .....	275
1898. Thirteenth,	Hand and Machine Labor (2 vols.) .....	1604
1899. Fourteenth,	Water, Gas, and Electric-light Plants under Private and Municipal Ownership .....	983
1900. Fifteenth,	A Compilation of Wages in Commercial Countries from Official Sources (2 vols.) .....	1642

### SPECIAL.

1889. First,	Marriage and Divorce .....	1074 pa
1892. Second,	Labor Laws of the United States (second edition, revised, 1896) .....	1383
1893. Third,	Analysis and Index of all Reports issued by Bureaus of Labor Statistics in the United States prior to Nov. 1, 1892 (out of print) .....	376
1893. Fourth,	Compulsory Insurance in Germany, etc. ....	370
1893. Fifth,	The Gothenburg System of Liquor Traffic .....	253
1893. Sixth,	The Phosphate Industry of the United States (with maps and illustrations) .....	145
1894. Seventh,	The Slums of Baltimore, Chicago, New York, and Philadelphia (out of print) .....	620
1895. Eighth,	The Housing of the Working People (with plans and illustrations) .....	461
1897. Ninth,	The Italians in Chicago .....	409

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## CONTENTS.

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	Page.
Labor conditions in Mexico, by Walter E. Weyl, Ph. D., of the University of Pennsylvania .....	1-94
The Negroes of Cinclare Central Factory and Calumet Plantation, Louisiana, by J. Bradford Laws .....	95-120
Charts exhibited at the Pan-American Exposition .....	121-126
The Quebec trade disputes act.....	127-133
Digest of recent reports of State bureaus of labor statistics:	
Kansas .....	134-136
Rhode Island .....	136-138
Virginia .....	138, 139
Digest of recent foreign statistical publications.....	140-159
Decisions of courts affecting labor .....	160-184
Laws of various States relating to labor enacted since January 1, 1896.....	185-194



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JANUARY, 1902.

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LABOR CONDITIONS IN MEXICO.

BY WALTER E. WEYL, PH. D.

To comprehend the labor conditions of a country, a consideration of the national characteristics, especially in their relation to labor efficiency, must of necessity be regarded as preliminary. In no country is this more true than in Mexico, where practically all the conditions of labor differ from those prevailing in the United States and western Europe, and where the existing conditions can not be understood without a knowledge of the character of the country and of the economic nature and industrial characteristics of the laboring population. It is necessary to know the conditions under which the work is performed and, above all, to obtain the racial and national equation of the workers before the statistics of employment or those of remuneration are presented.

POPULATION.

The total population of Mexico has more than doubled during the last one hundred years. In 1795 there were in the country, according to a census made by the Viceroy Revillagigedo, 5,200,000 inhabitants; in 1810, according to Don Fernando Navarro y Noriega, 6,122,354; in 1824, according to the estimate of Mr. Poinsett, the American minister, 3,500,000, while the Government census returns showed the population to be 7,044,140 in 1839, 7,853,395 in 1854, 8,743,614 in 1869, 9,384,193 in 1878, 10,791,685 in 1886, 12,632,427 in 1895, and 13,545,462(*a*) in

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*a* Preliminary figures, subject to future correction.

1900. The population in each State in 1895 and 1900 and the increase or decrease are shown in the following table:

POPULATION OF MEXICO AT THE CENSUSES OF 1895 AND 1900. (a)

State.	Census of 1895.	Census of 1900. (b)	Increase in 1900 since 1895.	Decrease in 1900 since 1895.
Aguas Calientes .....	104,615	101,910	.....	2,705
Lower California .....	42,245	47,082	4,837	.....
Campeche .....	88,121	84,281	.....	3,840
Coahuila .....	241,026	280,899	39,873	.....
Colima .....	55,752	65,026	9,274	.....
Chiapas .....	319,599	363,607	44,008	.....
Chihuahua .....	262,771	327,004	64,233	.....
Federal District .....	476,413	540,478	64,065	.....
Durango .....	295,105	371,274	76,169	.....
Guanajuato .....	1,062,554	1,065,317	2,763	.....
Guerrero .....	420,339	474,594	54,255	.....
Hidalgo .....	558,769	603,074	44,305	.....
Jalisco .....	1,107,227	1,137,311	30,084	.....
Mexico .....	841,618	924,457	82,839	.....
Michoacan .....	896,495	935,849	39,354	.....
Morelos .....	159,355	161,697	2,342	.....
Nuevo Leon .....	309,252	326,940	17,688	.....
Oaxaca .....	884,909	947,910	63,001	.....
Puebla .....	984,413	1,024,446	40,033	.....
Queretaro .....	228,551	228,489	.....	62
San Luis Potosi .....	568,449	582,486	14,037	.....
Sinaloa .....	258,865	296,109	37,244	.....
Sonora .....	191,281	220,553	29,272	.....
Tabasco .....	134,839	158,107	23,268	.....
Tamaulipas .....	206,502	218,948	12,446	.....
Tepic .....	148,776	149,677	901	.....
Tlascala .....	166,803	172,217	5,414	.....
Vera Cruz .....	866,355	960,570	94,215	.....
Yucatan .....	293,850	312,264	18,414	.....
Zacatecas .....	452,578	462,886	10,308	.....
Total .....	12,632,427	13,545,462	913,035	.....

<sup>a</sup> Censo de 1900. Resultado del censo de habitantes que se verificó el 28 de Octubre de 1900. México, 1901.

<sup>b</sup> Preliminary figures, subject to future correction.

According to Señor Romero (<sup>a</sup>) the true population in 1895 was not less than 15,000,000. He attributes the incompleteness of the returns to the imperfect machinery for taking the census and the evasion of many Indians, who feared that the census was a premonition of increased taxes and military drafts. The broken character of the country and the imperfect means of communication also lend credibility to the opinion that the census returns are considerably below the true population.

Of this population the greater number live in what may be said to be a temperate if not a cold climate. The greater-part of Mexico consists of a high plateau rising from the Rio Grande to the City of Mexico and situated between two ranges of mountains. This central plateau, despite its tropical and subtropical location, is comparatively cool, owing to its great elevation, and it is on this plateau that the Mexican population is chiefly massed, about 75 per cent of the people living here. All the States in this region have a considerable density

<sup>a</sup> Matias Romero, Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico, page 89. New York and London, 1898.



of population, but the greatest number reside in the southern part of the plateau. Of the remaining population about two-thirds live on the slopes of the plateau, in what is called the temperate zone, while the hot lands of the coast, with an elevation of less than 3,000 feet, are but thinly populated. This preponderance of the population on the plateau, which has prevailed since even before the conquest, has been vitally important in the industrial history of Mexico.

The economic effect of the preponderance of Indian blood in the population of Mexico can more clearly be discerned after the discussion upon the characteristics of the Indian. In her racial constitution, however, Mexico differs very greatly from Anglo-America—that is, the United States and Canada—and from various nations of Latin America. While the North American Indians have been swept away or driven back into reservations, those of Mexico and South America have shown greater vitality, and have, with the possible exception of those of Argentina, survived in large numbers and still make up a considerable element in the population. The mixture of the races has gone on rapidly in the Andean regions and “may even be regarded as completed in all the more populous districts of Venezuela and Colombia, in certain parts of Peru, in north and central Chile, as well as in Uruguay and along the banks of the Plata River,”<sup>(a)</sup> although along the eastern slopes of the Cordilleras and in the Amazonian forests, as in a great many of the remoter parts of Mexico, the Indian type has kept its purity. Going from west to east, along the seaboard of South America, the Negro type and the mixed Negro-Caucasian and Negro-Indian type increases, and even predominates in the Brazilian provinces which jut out toward the African Continent. In Mexico, however, this race is so feebly represented that it may be practically disregarded.

It was the opinion of Baron Humboldt, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, that the Indians would increase at the expense of the other elements of the Mexican population; but this development has not taken place, at all events not in a strictly literal sense. In 1810 the population, according to the census made in 1810 by Don Fernando Navarro y Noriega, and which appears in Humboldt's Political Essay on New Spain, amounted to 6,122,354, of which 1,107,367 (including 9,439 secular and regular ecclesiastics and nuns) were American and European Spaniards (Spaniards and creoles), 3,676,281 Indians, and 1,338,706 persons of mixed blood. In other words the white population formed 18 per cent, the Indians 60 per cent, and the mixed races 22 per cent of the total number of inhabitants. According to the census of 1875, however, the total population was 9,495,157, of which the whites numbered 1,899,031, or 20 per cent; the native Indians, 3,513,208, or 37 per cent, and the mixed races, 4,082,918,

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<sup>a</sup> Élisée Reclus, *The Earth and its Inhabitants*. South America, Volume I, page 42. New York, 1894.



or 43 per cent. According to this comparison, therefore, the white race had increased 791,664, and the mixed race 2,744,212, while the Indians of pure blood had actually decreased to the extent of 163,073 members. (a)

There have been many reasons assigned for the apparent decrease, both absolute and relative, in the number of Indians. It has been stated with truth that the Indians, despite their early marriages and the fact that they are very prolific, are subject to an exceedingly high rate of mortality, owing to malnutrition, insufficient shelter, lack of suitable medical attendance, drunkenness, and vulnerability, through carelessness, to smallpox and other diseases. That these conditions exist is undoubted, the mortality, especially of infants, being very high among the poorer classes. The Indian population appears to be diminishing also by intermarriage with the whites and the half-breeds, thus becoming merged in the great mixed *mestizo* or European-Indian race, which is becoming more and more the dominant factor in Mexican life. Viewing the question of race from this standpoint, it will be seen that from 1810 to 1875 the proportion of whites had increased from 18 to 20 per cent of the population, while that of mixed and native Indian races had decreased only from 82 to 80 per cent, although absolutely increasing 51 per cent during that period.

Data regarding race are no longer given in Mexican statistics, such differences having ceased to be recognized since the adoption of the Federal constitution of 1857. The mixed race, however, appears to be rapidly gaining at the expense of both the Indians and the pure whites, and intermarriage is creating a well-endowed race which is preponderatingly Indian. (b) This is an important fact, and one which makes any study of labor as well as of political and economic conditions in Mexico of especial interest to the sociologist. The history of the last few centuries has been almost entirely a relation of the doings of the

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a Probably by far the greater number of persons who escaped the census were Indians of pure blood, who represent the poorest and most ignorant members of the population. This, however, was probably also the case in former enumerations.

b It is the opinion of the author, founded merely upon observation and contact, and given with due reserve, that the Indian and mixed race is very much in excess of 80 per cent of the population. It seems probable that over 90 per cent of the population have at least one-eighth Indian blood, and not incredible that over 95 per cent of the native population will have an equal or greater proportion of Indian blood, while the proportion of Mexicans having absolutely no Indian blood must be very slight indeed. This statement is made, however, without exact statistical proof, but rather as a personal impression and as an argument based upon what is known of Spanish immigration during the three centuries ending in 1821. On the other hand, according to the excellent report on Mexico made by the Bureau of the American Republics, it is stated that it appears that 22 per cent of the population are white, 31 per cent Indians, and 47 per cent mixed. The report continues, "The custom of tribal intermarriage and improper methods of caring for the young in the matter of nutriment and clothing, as well as other causes, is rapidly decreasing the Indian race."



white race, and much doubt is cast upon the ability of the colored races to maintain the severe competitive struggle of modern times. The labor problem in Mexico, however, is one which must be faced by a nation preponderatingly Indian. (*a*)

The present population of Mexico is almost exclusively of native birth. Of the total of 12,491,573 persons classified as present (*presentes*) at the census of 1895, only 51,095, or less than one-half of 1 per cent were of foreign birth. (*b*) Of these, moreover, 13,962, or over 27 per cent were Guatemalans, of whom 13,705, or over 98 per cent lived in the neighboring State of Chiapas, just across the Guatemalan border. There thus remained a total of 37,133 persons of foreign birth (other than Guatemalans), or less than 3 per thousand. Of these 37,133 there were 12,859, or 35 per cent, from Spain and her colonies; 11,331, or 30 per cent, from the United States of America; 3,599 from France and her colonies; 2,450 from England and her colonies; 2,155 from Germany; and 1,932 from Italy. The immigration appears, therefore, to have been too small to have exerted any considerable influence racially, although its economic effect has been very marked.

Of the total foreign population of 51,095 resident in Mexico and present at the census of 1895, 14,029, or over 27 per cent, resided in Chiapas; 9,003, or 18 per cent, in the Federal District of Mexico, including the City of Mexico; 4,662 in Vera Cruz; 2,800 in Chihuahua, and the greater part of the remainder in the northern tier of States bordering on the United States. The large percentage of foreigners in Chiapas was due entirely to the large migration of Guatemalans who flock across the border. The Spaniards are distributed quite evenly over the whole country, although over one-half of them were to be found in the Federal District and the State of Vera Cruz. The Americans were to be found chiefly in the northern tier of States bordering on

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*a* A very interesting phenomenon in the development of a racial and national consciousness appears to be the Indian cult which may perhaps be said to prevail in Mexico. There are very many members of the mixed race who claim to be much prouder of their Indian than of their Spanish ancestry, and one frequently hears prominent Mexicans deplore certain weaknesses of the national character and attribute them to the heritage from the Spaniards. A well-known Mexican author goes so far as to state that the premature death of Columbus would have been one of the greatest possible benefits to the world and especially to Latin America, while among great masses of the population Spain and everything Spanish are most cordially detested. Occasionally children are given unpronounceable Indian instead of beautiful Spanish names, and it can not for a moment be doubted that in the eyes of the great mass of the people Cuahtemoc is much more of a hero than Cortez. All this seems to be an indication of the growth of a healthy national and racial consciousness.

*b* In the United States the percentage of foreign born in the population was in 1900, 13.71; in 1890, 14.77; in 1880, 13.32; in 1870, 14.44; in 1860, 13.16; in 1850, 9.68; in France, in 1891, there were 709,369 foreigners of European (other than French) birth, this number not including naturalized persons of French birth, while in Germany there were, in 1890, 433,254, and in 1895, 486,190 foreign-born residents.



their own country and in the States devoted to mining. Thus the American population, which in 1895 formed only 22.2 per cent of the total resident foreign population of the country, and only 15.2 per cent of the foreign population resident in the Federal District, made up 39.6 per cent in Zacatecas, 47 per cent in Durango, 48.4 per cent in Aguas Calientes, 63.7 per cent in Coahuila, 67 per cent in Nuevo Leon, 67.9 per cent in Tamaulipas, 76 per cent in Chihuahua, 54.4 per cent in Lower California, and 54.9 per cent in Sonora. Of the French population over 45 per cent were to be found in the Federal District and the rest were scattered throughout the country. Germans were more evenly distributed, as may also be said of the English.

Religiously the population is as homogeneous as it is by birth. Out of a total population of 12,491,573 present at the census, 12,380,245, or 99.1 per cent, of the total were Roman Catholics; 61,911, or 0.5 per cent, were without cult or religion, and 6,685 did not know what their religion was, if any. There thus remained 42,732 of other faiths, of whom the great majority (40,445) were Protestants. Taken all in all, only about one three-hundredth of the population professed any religion other than the Roman Catholic, and of these a large proportion were foreigners. Practically speaking, the country is entirely Roman Catholic, and the influence of this church is, among certain classes of the population, extremely potent.

The population of Mexico shows an excess of females over males, and this excess is still increasing. For instance, in 1895, there were 6,351,921 females to 6,280,506 males, a proportion of 101.1 to 100. According to the preliminary figures for 1900, there were 6,829,455 females to 6,716,007 males, or in a ratio of 101.7 females to 100 males. In this respect the population of Mexico differs from that of the United States and other countries to which immigration is attracted, and resembles more closely the countries of stable population and the conditions which exist in western Europe. Of the males enumerated in the census of 1895 whose marital status was known, 37.4 per cent were minors below the age of marriage, 27 per cent were single, 31.5 per cent were married, and 4.1 per cent were widowed. Of the females only 33 per cent were below the age of marriage (which is lower for women than for men), 26.8 per cent were single, 30.6 per cent were married, and 9.6 per cent were widowed. Of those of marriageable age, 43 per cent of the men and 40 per cent of the women were single, 50.3 per cent of the male and 45.7 per cent of the women were married, and 6.7 per cent of the men and 14.3 per cent of the women were widowed. The excess of widows over widowers results from the lower age at which the women are married and their lesser mortality.

This preponderance of females is more marked in the City of Mexico than anywhere else, the number of females to each 100 males in 1900



amounting to 109 in the Federal District, as compared with 107 in Campeche, 108 in Puebla, 106 in Hidalgo, 101 in Tlascala and Coahuila, etc., while in several States there is a preponderance of males. Thus, in Vera Cruz, there are but 99 females per 100 males; in Sonora and Chihuahua, 95; in Durango, 96; in Tamaulipas, 97; in Nuevo Leon, 92, and in Lower California only 87.

In the distribution of the population, according to age, the Mexican people approach very nearly to the standard of the American Negro, although in this respect it may be said that they differ from him in somewhat the same way that the Negro differs from the whites of the United States and of various nations of Europe. The statistics show, on the whole, a shifting of the population toward the lower age classes and give the impression of an extremely high birth and death rate. Thus, of the total population in 1895, 31 per cent were 10 years of age or less; 21.3 per cent between 11 and 20; 18.6 per cent between 21 and 30; 12.8 per cent between 31 and 40; 8 per cent between 41 and 50; 5 per cent between 51 and 60; 2.3 per cent between 61 and 70, and 1 per cent above 70.<sup>(a)</sup>

An indication of the small extent to which great masses of the Mexican population have been affected by outside influence is furnished by the statistics of language throughout the Republic. Although at present (1901) it is 380 years since the conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards, there are still over 2,000,000 inhabitants whose mother tongue is not Spanish, but some Indian language. Thus, for example, the Nahuatl or Mexican language is the mother tongue of 650,000 persons,<sup>(b)</sup> of whom 241,000 are in the State of Puebla, 107,000 in Vera Cruz, 71,000 in Guerrero, and some in almost all the States of the Republic. There were almost 249,000 individuals (210,000 in Yucatan, 39,000 in Campeche) whose mother tongue was Maya, and 230,000 individuals, almost all in the State of Oaxaca, whose mother tongue was Zapoteco. Other languages, not merely spoken, but spoken as the mother tongue and to the almost or entire exclusion of Spanish, were Otomí, 187,000; Mixteco, 145,000; Totonaco, 77,000, and many others. In several States the bulk of the population is actually not conversant with Spanish and claims an Indian language as its mother tongue. Thus, while in the Federal District 96 per cent, in Tamaulipas 99.4 per cent, and in Tabasco 92.7 per cent of the population present claimed Spanish as their mother tongue, the number of persons whose mother tongue was Spanish was only 79.2 per cent in Vera Cruz, 76.7 per cent in Tlascala, 62 per cent in Chiapas, 55 per cent in Campeche, 46.3 per cent

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<sup>a</sup> The statistics give 7,320 persons between the ages of 91 and 100, which is probably a gross exaggeration, and 711 centenarians, which is undoubtedly very much above the truth.

<sup>b</sup> Censo General de la República Mexicana. Mexico, 1895.



in Oaxaca, and only 29.4 per cent in Yucatan. Even in Yucatan the number of Spanish-speaking persons was largely restricted to the capital (Merida) and the coast city of Progreso, and the islands, where the majority were of Spanish tongue. In the remaining fourteen districts of the State only 16.3 per cent of the inhabitants claimed Spanish and 83.7 per cent of the population claimed Maya as their native language. The hindering effect of this great body of Indians clinging tenaciously to their native tongue and remaining outside the current of thought and progress can well be appreciated.

It is rather difficult to obtain an exact idea of the birth rate in Mexico, owing to defective registration. Thus, in the year 1898, there were registered in the country by the civil authorities 489,933 births, and by the ministers of religious denominations—in other words, by the priests of the Roman Catholic Church—256,474. Many of these registrations were apparently duplications, the larger proportion of those registered by the religious authorities being counted as well by the civil authorities. In some cases, however, as in the States of Durango and Michoacan, there were more persons registered by the priests than by the civil authorities. It is thus impossible to obtain any accurate figure for the birth rate, but from such statistics as we possess it appears to be high. (*a*) In the State of Yucatan the birth rate of those who were registered by the civil authorities alone amounted to 51.4 per thousand, without taking into account those whose birth was inscribed by the priests. In Mexico, as in other parts of the world, the male births exceeded those of females, the proportion, including stillborn, being 108.3 males to 100 females, for those registered by the civil authorities.

The percentage of illegitimate births in Mexico is exceedingly high, averaging in 1898 42.5 per cent of the total births registered by the law. Probably the great majority of those who have not been registered by the courts are illegitimate. (*b*) In some States the percentage is much higher, amounting to nearly 54 per cent in Guanajuato and to

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*a* The truest index obtainable for the number of births in the Republic is to be found in the statistics of deaths and population. The number of births registered by the civil authorities is much smaller than the registry of deaths, but the reason for this low registration of infants is evident, and the rapid increase in the population and the small extent to which this increase is due to immigration shows clearly that the birth rate is greatly in excess of the death rate. If the increase in population of 913,035, as shown by the preliminary report of the census, is correct (and is not due merely to more effective methods of enumeration) and if the annual excess of immigrants be taken at 8,000 per year, the number of births for the country would appear to be annually about 175,000 in excess of the deaths, or about 627,000 for the year 1898, instead of 489,933, as given in the civil registry. Apparently the great majority of those whose names are not registered by the civil authorities are illegitimate, because their parents have had either a church wedding only or none at all.

*b* From such data as are accessible it would appear to be safe to assume a ratio of illegitimacy of over 50 and perhaps as high as 55 per cent.



almost 70 per cent in Hidalgo. In the State of Chiapas there were 285 illegitimate to 100 legitimate births, while in Michoacan the relation was 302 to 100. In the district of Zamora, in the last-mentioned State, the illegitimate births made up 93.6 per cent of the total births registered by law and if those not registered are included probably over 96 per cent of the total number of births.

The illegitimacy in Mexico, however, must not be ascribed to any widespread immorality or to a universal disregard of the marriage tie. It is probable that in great masses of the population such conditions actually do exist, and unions are maintained which are not sanctioned by either church or state. The main cause of the high figures of illegitimacy is to be found in the fact that, although a state marriage is absolutely necessary in order to establish the legitimacy of offspring, such a precaution is frequently omitted, and persons are married simply by the priests alone. As a result the illegitimacy is in a large measure "technical," and furnishes an indication of the strong hold of the church and of an apathy and small power of adaptation on the part of the population, rather than of any large measure of sexual license.

The same difficulty encountered in the statistics of births is to be met with in those of marriages, since many persons are married both by church and state, and not a few Mexicans are married by the church alone. If we adhere to the strictly legal definition, however, and consider only those marriages registered by the civil authorities, the statistics will show a marriage rate considerably less than that prevailing in most European countries. Thus in 1898 there were 61,687 marriages, which amounted to 4.88 marriages, or 9.76 persons married per thousand of the population, while in 1897 the number of marriages amounted to only 4.04, and the number of persons married to only 8.08 per thousand of the population.<sup>(a)</sup>

One of the most significant facts with regard to marriages consummated in Mexico is the very early age at which they are solemnized. The statistics of ages of brides and grooms in Mexico refer exclusively to those marriages which are registered by the civil authorities, and consequently to those persons only who may be considered to be somewhat more provident and more advanced than those who do not thus legalize their union. It can not be assumed that the ages of those persons who unite themselves without obtaining the sanction of the State will be greater than those who register, and the ages of persons contracting unions of less permanency are, in all probability, rather

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<sup>a</sup> Compare with this an annual marriage rate, during the period 1871-1890, of 16.7 persons married per year per thousand of the population in Prussia, 16.4 in the entire German Empire, 16.3 in Austria, 15.6 in England and Wales, 15.6 in Italy, 15.4 in France, 15.2 in Denmark, 15.1 in Holland, 14.7 in Switzerland, 14.4 in the United Kingdom, 14.2 in Belgium, 13.9 in Scotland, 13.7 in Norway, 13.1 in Sweden, 9 in Ireland, and (for the period 1876-1890) 19.1 in Hungary.



less than greater than those for whom statistics are available. The marriage age afforded by the statistics, however, is extremely low and appears indicative of the very general improvidence and disregard of future responsibilities with which the sexual union is entered upon. It must, of course, be borne in mind that the age at which marriage is physically possible is earlier in Mexico than in this country, this being especially the case in the hot lands. The influence of the church also appears to be in the direction of favoring early marriages, although no attempt is here made to trace this influence statistically. Over and above the differences due to climate and training, however, the age at which marriages are entered upon, the frequency with which civil registration is dispensed with, and the general laxity of the sexual tie, especially in the large cities, are all indications of an apathetic indifference to obvious economic requirements. The average age of marriage is from 26 to 27 years for men and about 20 to 21 years for women. (a) Roughly speaking, five-eighths of all men and five-sixths of all women in Mexico marry before their twenty-sixth year. In 1898, of all women, including widows, who registered their marriage, 25.1 per cent were from 12 to 16 years of age; in 1897, the proportion was 26.3; in 1896, 27.8; in 1895, 23.8. (b) Of the entire number contracting marriages, including, as before, second or subsequent marriages, the proportion between the ages of 17 and 19, inclusive, was 29.6 per cent in 1898, 30 per cent in 1897, 28.9 in 1896, 25.9 in 1895, so that, on an average, over five-ninths of the total number of women marrying civilly, including those remarrying, were of the age of 19 or less. Of all marriages, 82.5 per cent were consummated by women of the age of 25 or under in the year 1898, 83.7 per cent in 1897, 82.9 per cent in 1896, and 73.4 per cent in 1895. Of women marrying in 1898, 9 per cent were between the ages of 26 and 30; 3.5 per cent between 31 and 35 years; 2.7 per cent between 36 and 40 years; 1 per cent between 41 and 45 years, and 1.3 per cent over 45 years. Of all men marrying in 1898, according to the civil registers, 3.3 per cent were between the ages of 14 and 16, 14.5 between 17 and 19 years, 45.2 between 20 and 25

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a The average age of grooms and brides in Prussia is 29.56 and 26.52, respectively; in England 28.37 and 26.08, respectively; in Norway 30.66 and 27.83, respectively. (In England the spinster brides marry at 24.87 and the widows at 40.43.)

b Of women marrying between the ages of 12 and 16, in the State of Vera Cruz, the percentage in 1898 was 31.8, or over one-fourth in excess of the proportion for the whole country. The age of marriage in Yucatan was even lower, 40.9 per cent of all marriages registered by the civil authorities being consummated by brides who were between the ages of 12 and 16. The very early age of marriage in Yucatan seems to be in part traceable to the conditions of labor there existing and to the fact that the Yucatecan commences work by borrowing sufficient money to get married. In the city of Mexico, on the other hand, the proportion of women marrying at the age of 16 or under, was only 6.8 per cent, and the percentage of women marrying under the age of 26 was only 54, as compared with 82.5 for the whole country.



years, 16.8 between 26 and 30 years, 7.2 between 31 and 35 years, 5.7 between 36 and 40 years, 2.6 between 41 and 45 years, and 4.7 over 45 years of age.

The following table shows the number of births, marriages, and deaths in each State in 1897, and the population at the census of 1895:

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES IN MEXICO IN 1897.

State.	Births registered by civil authorities.			Births registered by priests.	Marriages registered by—		Deaths.	Population, census of 1895.
	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	Total.		Civil authorities.	Priests.		
Aguas Calientes .....	1,037	128	1,165	.....	389	.....	5,488	104,615
Campeche .....	2,481	748	3,229	3,192	609	259	2,517	88,121
Coahuila .....	6,076	559	6,626	4,533	2,116	1,178	7,910	241,026
Colima .....	1,207	599	1,806	1,576	183	247	2,277	55,752
Chiapas .....	3,543	9,563	13,106	6,031	1,018	517	7,174	319,599
Chihuahua .....	8,108	1,509	9,617	.....	1,859	.....	5,927	262,771
Federal District .....	2,572	2,046	4,618	.....	1,207	.....	24,733	476,413
Durango .....	6,728	2,612	9,340	10,674	1,684	1,648	7,072	295,105
Guanajuato .....	10,606	10,345	20,951	25,245	1,906	3,827	43,837	1,032,554
Guerrero .....	14,199	3,869	18,068	6,896	2,813	958	14,379	420,339
Hidalgo .....	6,870	10,243	17,113	18,449	1,366	1,426	20,777	558,769
Jalisco .....	42,272	5,729	48,001	41,521	9,717	9,475	34,024	1,107,187
Mexico .....	15,345	4,298	19,643	23,664	3,243	3,264	32,493	841,618
Michoacan .....	5,810	19,057	24,867	32,126	1,460	6,311	30,614	896,495
Morelos .....	2,742	1,994	4,736	4,120	576	486	8,833	159,704
Nuevo Leon .....	7,347	648	7,995	5,011	2,118	922	11,631	309,252
Oaxaca .....	11,613	21,629	33,242	23,451	1,451	1,701	34,214	884,909
Puebla .....	12,841	10,702	23,543	.....	2,031	.....	41,576	984,413
Queretaro .....	2,150	704	2,854	.....	574	.....	9,023	228,551
San Luis Potosi .....	10,214	2,286	12,500	.....	2,232	.....	21,481	568,543
Sinaloa .....	2,559	6,394	8,953	.....	853	.....	5,795	258,865
Sonora .....	1,631	1,029	2,660	.....	682	.....	3,431	191,281
Tabasco .....	3,015	2,688	5,703	2,434	668	228	2,825	134,839
Tamaulipas .....	3,029	1,129	4,158	.....	995	.....	7,127	206,502
Tlascala .....	4,934	821	5,755	5,755	934	934	6,638	165,813
Vera Cruz .....	10,153	16,316	26,474	20,314	2,283	1,876	28,208	866,355
Yucatan .....	12,783	2,833	15,616	9,115	2,458	1,600	12,641	298,850
Zacatecas .....	15,893	2,692	18,585	13,160	2,911	2,260	16,218	452,578
Lower California .....	403	295	698	321	173	47	701	42,245
Tepic .....	2,286	1,468	3,754	.....	491	.....	5,445	148,776
Total .....	230,452	144,924	375,376	257,588	51,000	39,164	455,009	12,631,840

The rate of mortality in Mexico is very high. According to the official statistics for the year 1898, the death rate was 35.8 persons per thousand of the population, which is very much in excess of the average rate in most countries of Europe.(a) This death rate is extremely high in certain portions of the country. Thus, while in Chiapas it was only 27.1; in Campeche, 30.2; in Tamaulipas, 32.7, and in Vera Cruz, 32.2, it amounted in Guanajuato to 45.6, in the Federal District to 52.1, and in Yucatan to 52.8. The figures for Yucatan are astoundingly high,

a For instance the death rate in 1893 was 31.1 per thousand in Hungary, 28.8 in Austria (1892), 25.3 in Italy, 24.6 in Germany, 24.2 in Prussia, 22.6 in France (1892), 19.2 in Holland, 20.5 in Switzerland, 20.3 in Belgium, 19.4 in Scotland, 19.2 in England and Wales, 19.1 in the United Kingdom, 18.9 in Denmark, 17.9 in Ireland, 17.9 in Sweden (1892), 16.4 in Norway. The death rate in Mexico is based upon a population which is probably less than the real, but it can not be assumed with any great probability that the real death rate is less than the one given above, as the registration of deaths is probably no more complete than the enumeration of inhabitants.



which appears to be due in part to the fearful infant mortality, caused by excessively early marriages and in part to lack of sufficient nourishment and proper medical care. It is interesting to note that Yucatan, which has so high a death rate and so great a percentage of child marriages, is also a State in which the pure Indian predominates and in which the Indian language (Maya) is the mother tongue of the majority of the inhabitants. The extremely high rate of mortality in the Federal District arises largely from the insanitary conditions which have prevailed there and which are only now being done away with, and the malnutrition and inebriety of great masses of the population, etc., but it seems also probable that the statistical figures are larger than the true ones, since the population of the city is probably greater than that returned by the census. The number of deaths in the City of Mexico from 1868 to 1898, according to the reports of the government of the Federal District, are given in the following table:

DEATHS IN THE CITY OF MEXICO FROM 1868 TO 1898.

Year.	Deaths.	Year.	Deaths.	Year.	Deaths.	Year.	Deaths.	Year.	Deaths.
1868.....	5,844	1875.....	9,343	1882.....	11,577	1889.....	15,475	1896.....	16,842
1869.....	7,109	1876.....	10,403	1883.....	12,236	1890.....	16,855	1897.....	17,866
1870.....	8,086	1877.....	12,232	1884.....	12,920	1891.....	15,343	1898.....	18,025
1871.....	7,529	1878.....	10,162	1885.....	13,170	1892.....	17,359		
1872.....	8,157	1879.....	10,207	1886.....	13,183	1893.....	20,494		
1873.....	7,465	1880.....	9,489	1887.....	13,247	1894.....	15,994		
1874.....	8,753	1881.....	9,720	1888.....	13,272	1895.....	14,538		

Considered as a whole, the Mexican population possesses certain qualities which aid and certain others which hinder it in adapting itself to modern industrial conditions, and which affect its labor efficiency. These qualities are the result partly of climatic, partly of racial, and partly of economic conditions. So important, so vital are these characteristics, however, that no discussion of labor conditions can be intelligently made or correctly understood without their previous consideration.

The most salient characteristic of native labor is apathy. This differs in degree in various parts of the country and in different classes of the population, but on the whole it is sufficiently general to be considered as a national characteristic of great importance in everything pertaining to labor.

In both the hot lands on the coast and the highlands of the central plateau the population is marked by an almost constitutional indolence. This natural indolence of the Mexican has been attributed to a number of causes. In the hot lands it differs slightly from what is observed in other countries having the same temperature and humidity, while on the central plateau the bad effect of the great elevation on the muscular power and the nervous energy of the population has been well established.

The average elevation of the plateau is about 6,600 feet above the level of the sea, Mexico itself being at a height of 7,444 and Toluca at an elevation of 8,763 feet. At this elevation the barometric pressure is very much reduced, the air is quite rarefied, and the amount of oxygen contained in a given measure of air is considerably reduced.

The effect of this reduced breathing-in of oxygen, in the case of both men and the lower animals, is to be observed in a lessened activity and a reduction in the ability to perform work of any sort. The amount of oxygen in the air also varies greatly with the temperature, and such changes in temperature are very sudden and serious in Mexico. This does not refer to seasonal changes in temperature, which, on the high-lands of Mexico, are not great, but merely diurnal changes or such as are effected during the twenty-four hours of the day. The high altitude renders it very cool in the shade, while the tropical sun causes it to be hot wherever it is unshaded. During the night there is a general cooling off of the plateau, but the warmth of the sun rapidly raises the temperature during the morning, and, by expanding the air, further decreases the amount of oxygen, thus producing a feeling of lassitude and inertia among the inhabitants of the plateau.<sup>(a)</sup>

The effect of the high altitude in creating an indisposition to exert oneself is far from imaginary. The effect of the high altitude is immediately observed both in man and in the lower animals, neither of whom are able to perform the same amount of work as at sea level, and the effect of the climate is reflected in many indolent habits of the native population. Jourdanet goes so far as to speak of an anoxæmia and an organic indolence of the Mexican, due to the rarefaction of the air and its dryness during the heated portion of the day. Without discussing further, however, the exact extent to which the corporal powers are lessened by the reduced amount of oxygen in the air, it suffices to state that the effect of this condition in producing indolence is very great, and is felt by the foreigners who go to Mexico to live, as well as those to the manor born.

Another climatic influence resulting in indolence and improvidence upon the part of great masses of the Mexican population is the absence of severe winters. The seasons in Mexico are divided into the wet and dry, rather than into summer and winter, the chief distinction being in the amount of the rainfall rather than in changes of temperature. The absence of snow and severe cold has the effect of relieving the community of the necessity of preparing in advance for the exigencies of a winter season, and reduces the standard of life by obviating the necessity of improving the houses, clothing, and diet

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<sup>a</sup> For a discussion of this subject see D. Jourdanet, *Le Mexique et l'Amérique tropicale*. Paris, 1864. See also Julio Guerrero, *La Génesis del Crimen en México*. Paris and Mexico, 1901.



of the community.. The influence of severe winters is felt in many countries in the stimulation of the population to increased industrial activity, and in the raising of the general standard of providence by a gradual weeding out of those who do not prepare for the cold season. But in Mexico this condition can not be said to exist, and the equable climate fails to render any great degree of foresight necessary. The absence of cold winters is merely one phase of the general equability of the climate, which allows the survival of a low order of wants and a very low standard of life.

The indolence of the Mexican laboring population, as a whole, and its apathy toward anything like progress, are to be attributed, however, as much to social and economic conditions as to the effect of the climate. Three hundred years of despotism under the Spaniards have not had the effect of creating a type of man to whom labor of any sort is a pleasure. As will later be seen, the working population of the country was exploited in the harshest possible manner, and the whole industrial system of the Spaniards rested, for two centuries at least, upon the principle of forced labor with insufficient remuneration. The social division of the inhabitants of the country and the separation of the castes also led to the degradation of the great bulk of the population. The principle of survival became one of mere endurance rather than of any positive industrial quality. Just to what extent the Indians were industrially endowed before the conquest is still a matter of controversy, but there seems to be little doubt that the three hundred years of Spanish rule failed to create in them a good industrial type. "The wars of the conquest, the work of the mines, the former system of *encomiendas* and *repartimientos*, the plagues and the civil conflicts, his rude labors, \* \* \* as well as his incorporation into the mixed race, constitute the principal causes," according to one author, of the decadence of the indigenous race.(a)

During the revolutionary times which followed Mexican independence, the industrial conditions of the country became so vitiated and industry was so interrupted that little, if any, progress could be made

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a Antonio García Cubas, Discurso acerca de la decadencia de la raza indígena. Mexico, 1880. The signs of the decadence of the Indian, Cubas finds in his dissimulation and lack of confidence, his indolence, and the resignation and fatalism which prevent him from making any effort in his own behalf. Another writer, Carlo Bení, Notizie sopra gli indigeni di Mexico, in the Archivio per Antropologia e la etnologia, Florence, 1882, states that "the Indian of Mexico is the type par excellence of a decadent race," and bases his opinion apparently upon the relatively greater progress of the white, the extraordinary tenacity with which the Indian holds to his ancient customs, his indolence, his low standard of life, his patient endurance of wrong, and, as far as appearance goes, his uniformly sad and reflective expression. It appears to the author, however, that it is far too early to pass any final judgment upon the capabilities of the pure Indian race, to say nothing of the result of the mixture between Spaniards and Indians.



toward the creation of an energetic and intelligent labor class. For over half a century the powers of misrule were in the ascendant, and it paid better to prey upon society than to work for it. With the government changing with the greatest frequency, with revolutions, proclamations, and *pronunciamientos* a constant occurrence, with the roads infested with brigands, with arbitrary taxation and confiscations, with heavy interstate taxes and large import duties, tempered by an extensive system of smuggling, the opportunities for any great progress of the working population were extremely restricted. During this epoch there seems to have been considerable growth in the population of the cities, a growth, however, resulting from a fear of the country rather than from the greater industrial opportunities of the city, and resembling therein less the natural increase of a modern city than the growth of the mediæval towns during the more troublous periods of the Middle Ages. With the growth of the city population, there appears to have occurred a simultaneous decrease in the amount of capital devoted to industry (owing to the frequent wars) and an over-population in relation to the opportunities for earning a living. The resulting unemployment and partial employment, and the depressing effect upon wages that marked the first half century of independence, can still be traced in their influence upon the rate of wages in the city and in the industrial character of great masses of the urban populations.

To a certain extent the indolent manner of working of many Mexican laborers, and the consequent small productivity of labor, are the result of malnutrition. As will be shown later, the diet of the Mexicans is extremely restricted, both in quantity and variety, and is not rich in nutritive qualities. The Mexican suffers largely from anæmia, and his work is rendered less productive from this cause.

A still more important influence, however, is the tendency toward drunkenness. The consumption of alcoholic liquors is not only great but constant throughout the day, and the interruptions to work, as a consequence, are frequent. The payment of wages is frequently a pretext and an opportunity for drunkenness, which, in the great cities, at all events, is alarmingly prevalent. It can not be proved that the confirmed tendency to drink in Mexico is the result of the improved conditions of the last generation. The drunkenness of the Indian has always been the cause of frequent attempts at remedial legislation by viceroys. Humboldt (*a*) stated that "the Indians would undoubtedly attain a very great longevity if their constitutions were not weakened by drunkenness." Even in those days drunkenness was extremely prevalent all over the country, and especially in the States of Mexico, Puebla, and Tlascala, where the maguey was cultivated on a large

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*a* Humboldt, Political Essay on New Spain, Volume I, page 111.



scale.(a) In 1898 there were in the City of Mexico 604 establishments for the sale of wines, liquors, and beers, and 883 *pulquerías* or places where the fermented juice of the maguey is sold. The drinking of the population has an extremely evil effect on their working capacity, since they imbibe not only after but during the day's work. Many laborers quit work from time to time in order to take a *copita*, and drunkenness is not infrequently the cause, consequence, and solace of nonemployment.

Another stimulant in which Mexicans indulge to a very great extent is tobacco, which is consumed almost entirely in the shape of cigarettes. During the latter half of the year 1898 there were produced in Mexico, according to the report of the secretary of finance, 162,689,604 packages of cigarettes (usually with 18 or 20 to the package), of a total weight of 2,461,886 kilograms (5,427,524 pounds), and 55,608,488 cigars, of a weight of 315,040 kilograms (694,544 pounds), the consumption being very slightly less than the production and the actual production being probably greater than that indicated by the statistics. The consumption of tobacco in other forms, such as snuff, chewing tobacco, etc., is infinitesimal.

One of the clearest indications of the general apathy of the Mexican laborer of the lower classes, and one which unfits him, more than any other cause, for industrial progress and higher wages, is his content with his present state. As a general rule the lower classes of the Mexican population respond but feebly to any attempt to increase their wants, although this may, at least partially, be due to the high silver prices of many articles of desirable consumption. As a consequence there is little demand for higher wages and no class consciousness that could enforce such demands.(b)

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a In the City of Mexico, in the vice-regal days, tumbrels were constantly sent out by the police to collect the drunken Indians who lay stretched out like dead in all public places. They were then forced to work upon the streets for three days, with iron rings around their ankles, but many of them were caught again immediately after their release. The more lenient methods of the police of the present day do not seem to come any nearer to solving the problem. The criminality, and more especially the attacks on persons, are very largely the result of the proneness to drunkenness on the part of great masses of the population. In the year 1897, according to the report of the procurator of justice, there were, in the Federal District, 9,763 persons accused of wounding (*lesiones*) of whom 5,833 were condemned and sentenced. Of the total number of persons sentenced, almost three-fourths were convicted of such assaults on persons (*lesiones*) and many of these were committed by drunken persons.

b This absence of class consciousness and of any articulate representation of the demands of the working classes is very marked in Mexico. An article in *El Correo de Sotaventa* of Tlacotalpan, reproduced in *El Economista Mexicano*, May 19, 1900, pages 186, 187, entitled "A Problem," is one of the very few instances of a statement of labor conditions from the point of view of the laborer. The writer of this article believes that all classes are benefiting by the progress now going on except the workingmen (*jornaleros*), who receive just enough, "mathematically calculated,"



Most of the characteristics which unfit large sections of the Mexican population for labor of a high degree of efficiency, such as indolence, drunkenness, unreliability, etc., might be summed up in the one word "improvidence."

There are few people in the world who take less thought of the morrow, or promise more for it, than the Mexican. The Mexican workman of the unskilled class appears to have absolutely no dread of nonemployment and will accept a discharge with courteous equanimity, although absolutely unprovided with means of sustenance. There is very little saving of wages on the part of the poorer classes and but little tendency to lay by for a season of stress, while the system of insuring lives has not yet penetrated to the laboring population. This improvidence of the Mexican poorer classes and, above all, of the Indians, is shown by the manner in which they will sacrifice permanent and material benefits for passing pleasures, and will risk many days' wages on the result of a cock fight or the toss of a coin. The propensity for gambling is especially strong and strikes the observer as being one of the most characteristic features of Mexican life. Gambling, which is regulated by the State, is indulged in by all classes, and in the gambling houses, the clubs, in the *pelota* games, and elsewhere, large wagers are made, while the demand for lottery tickets, both by rich and poor, is enormous. There is perhaps no single factor more favorable to the creation of habits of general improvidence than the manner in which the gambling propensities of the Mexicans of the poorer classes are tolerated and even encouraged.

The labor of the population is very largely reduced by feast days and holidays, although their number is now diminishing. On such days it is very difficult to obtain labor, since the ambitions of the workman are not greatly stimulated by a promise of higher wages, and because, although there is no active class consciousness, there is a certain collective tenacious clinging to traditions which resents any change of the conditions of work as an unwarranted aggression.

Upon the whole the greatest drawback to the value of labor of Mexicans is its unreliability. Work will be interrupted upon the most trivial of pretexts and will be postponed despite solemn promises to the contrary. The quality of procrastination which has been said to be a national characteristic in the country called "the land of mañana" is also found among workmen, and has the effect of greatly reducing their efficiency. Another great drawback to the efficiency of the ordinary

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to satisfy hunger; who are merely hands (*brazos, arms*), leaving an inheritance of slavery for several generations to their debt-laden descendants, and who have hardly enough to live upon and nothing left to them but brutal pleasures and drunkenness. This article is quoted from, not for its intrinsic merit, but as being one of the very few evidences of anything like a class consciousness.



workman is the leniency, if not favor, with which petty stealing is regarded and tolerated by these classes. It would not be fair to say that the Mexican population, as a whole, is worse than that of any other country, but the economic conditions incline large masses of the population to petty stealing and make commercial honesty in small transactions a quality rarer than might be desirable. The petty thieving of an immense number of men and women, employed wholly or partially, prevents the successful operation of many enterprises. This proneness to petty thieving is due to a lack of industrial training, the long-time subjection of great masses of the population, and the consequent necessity of combating force with deceit. It is also due to the low wages and the very low standard of life, and it reaches its acme in plantations where peons are caught stealing corn intended for the cattle and using it for their own consumption. In the capital, where extremes of wealth and poverty meet, and where, despite the increase in wages, petty larceny appears to be more profitable than unskilled labor, the thieving propensities of certain classes of the population amount to a veritable plague. In the year 1897 there were 2,343 persons (among these 469 women) accused of petty thieving, of whom over half, or 1,230, were sentenced. The condemnations for this offense amounted to over 15 per cent of the total for the Federal District, but, large as these figures are, they are of course very much below the actual number of petty thefts committed. The chief result of this proneness to steal on a small scale is to be found in a lessened confidence, and increased cost of supervision, a frequent loss of tools and materials, a great diversion of human force from productive labor, and a withdrawal of capital from enterprises which might otherwise be successful. (a) The Federal Government, however, is handling this problem with all the vigor and intelligence which pre-eminently distinguish it and by the deportation of the *rateros* (petty thieves) and the gradual improvement of labor conditions a partial solution of the problem is likely to be found.

One of the clearest indexes of the character, efficiency, and status of the laboring classes in Mexico is to be found in the lack of education and training of the population. The policy of the Spanish Government did not favor an extension of education; on the contrary, many measures were taken to prevent a wider spread of knowledge and the introduction of liberalizing ideas from foreign lands. The church, it is true, devoted considerable attention to education, and continued its work after independence was obtained, but until the firm establishment of the Liberal party, after the French intervention, small progress was made in spreading any form of education among the masses.

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a One of the greatest drawbacks to the cultivation of rubber is claimed to be the strong probability of losing one's crop by the spoliations of the natives.



The statistics of illiteracy in each State in 1895 are shown in the following table:

ILLITERACY OF THE MEXICAN POPULATION IN 1895.

State.	Popula- tion, 1895.	Knowing how to read and write.	Knowing how to read only.	Illiterates.	Illiterates owing to youth.	Literacy un- known.
CENTRAL STATES.						
Federal District .....	468,705	175,592	21,984	196,242	68,338	6,549
Aguas Calientes .....	102,378	14,807	3,050	69,791	13,824	906
San Luis Potosi .....	562,195	63,944	12,071	375,048	105,658	5,474
Guanajuato .....	1,047,817	106,205	41,394	711,991	188,128	99
Queretaro .....	224,848	25,787	8,752	145,190	38,992	6,127
Hidalgo .....	551,817	57,727	6,692	378,607	108,586	205
Mexico .....	837,981	113,772	24,082	515,770	183,182	1,175
Morelos .....	156,786	23,470	6,733	100,864	25,713	6
Tlascala .....	163,244	45,052	7,917	80,596	29,641	38
Puebla .....	973,876	117,761	22,218	657,112	176,764	21
Durango .....	292,549	46,446	7,491	190,646	47,966	.....
Zacatecas .....	447,265	73,647	9,848	292,844	70,588	338
NORTHERN STATES.						
Sonora .....	189,158	42,713	1,728	112,986	31,731	.....
Chihuahua .....	260,008	48,762	5,200	157,570	46,779	1,697
Coahuila .....	237,815	41,591	3,542	149,861	42,821	.....
Nuevo Leon .....	307,856	73,179	7,773	166,940	53,617	6,347
GULF STATES.						
Tamaulipas .....	203,245	40,874	2,274	92,194	67,903	.....
Vera Cruz .....	853,892	101,091	9,413	576,727	166,661	.....
Tabasco .....	133,926	18,158	2,246	86,739	26,613	170
Campeche .....	87,264	15,441	1,577	53,177	17,069	.....
Yucatan .....	297,088	41,212	2,341	197,299	56,236	.....
PACIFIC STATES.						
Michoacan .....	887,008	92,426	26,212	597,937	169,897	536
Colima .....	55,264	15,758	757	30,874	7,875	.....
Guerrero .....	417,886	24,949	8,625	307,547	76,765	.....
Jalisco .....	1,094,569	196,664	45,982	650,116	197,185	4,622
Sinaloa .....	256,858	50,056	3,170	160,072	43,370	190
Chiapas .....	318,730	21,993	3,273	217,280	75,343	841
Oaxaca .....	872,902	58,873	21,952	619,703	169,384	2,990
Tepic .....	146,805	22,098	4,354	94,660	24,508	1,185
Lower California .....	41,838	12,774	685	21,082	7,297	.....
Total .....	12,491,573	1,782,822	323,336	8,007,465	2,338,434	39,516

As will be seen, the lack of education and of general preparedness for intelligent work on the part of the great mass of the population is still tremendous, despite the great progress which is being made in education at the present time. Thus of a population of 12,491,573 counted as present in 1895, there were 8,007,465 persons, or 64.1 per cent of the total population, who were returned as illiterates within reading age (being unable either to read or write), while 323,336, or 2.6 per cent, could read but not write, 2,338,434, or 18.7 per cent, were illiterates owing to youth, while only 1,782,822 persons, or but 14.3 per cent of the population, could both read and write. Of 39,516, or 0.3 per cent, the literacy was unknown. If we exclude from the statistics those who were too young to be considered and those, as well, whose literacy or illiteracy was unknown, it results that only 17.6 per cent were complete literates, 3.2 per cent could read but not write, while 79.2 per cent could neither read nor write. The



manual workers would naturally furnish a larger percentage of illiterates than the leisure and wealthier classes, but, on the other hand, the figures include, over and above those who are engaged in some regular occupation, a large number of persons whose work is so irregular, sporadic, and limited as to be almost outside the industrial economy of the country. (a)

The low percentage of literacy for the whole country is considerably higher than that which prevails in certain parts of the country. Thus, while in the Federal District 37.5 per cent of the total population can both read and write, and while the proportion in Tlascala is 27.6 per cent, the percentage for the whole country, 14.3, is not everywhere maintained. Thus, in San Luis Potosi the ratio of persons able to read and write to the whole population is only 11.4 per cent; in Guanajuato only 10.1 per cent; in Oaxaca only 6.7 per cent; in Guerrero only 6 per cent, etc. The percentage of illiteracy among the feminine portion of the community is also smaller than the average, there being only 11.4 per cent of the females able to read and write, 2.8 per cent able to read, while 67.2 per cent are wholly illiterate, 18.3 per cent illiterate owing to age, and 0.3 per cent with literacy unknown. Including those whose literacy is unknown, but excluding those below age, the male illiterates in 1895 represented 75.8 per cent of the total male population within the age limits assumed, the female illiterates 82.6 per cent of the total female population, and the total illiterates 79 per cent of the total population. (b)

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a The percentage of illiteracy here given, great as it appears, is, in all probability, however, considerably underestimated. A large number of *mestizos*, and above all, pure Indians, evade the census, owing to an ignorant and undefined fear of this exercise of Federal power. The persons who thus escape enumeration, however, have a much greater percentage of illiteracy than those who are counted, and, in all probability, are almost all illiterates. Even without this deduction, however, the difficulties in the way of improving the labor conditions in a country in which four-fifths of the total population above school age are illiterates, and in which only one-sixth can both read and write, must appear formidable.

b A comparison of the statistics of Mexican illiteracy with those of a few European countries will illustrate the extent of the burden of ignorance under which the masses in the former country labor. In Austria, in 1890, out of a total population of 23,895,413, but 9,605,337, or 40.2 per cent, were illiterates (as compared with 83.1 per cent in Mexico, including 0.3 per cent with literacy unknown), while 1,031,624, or 4.3 per cent (in Mexico 2.6 per cent), could read only, and 13,258,452, or 55.5 per cent (in Mexico 14.3), could both read and write. In Hungary, where the percentage of illiteracy is very high, amounting to 54.6 per cent, it is still much lower than in Mexico, while the statistics of other countries, such as Germany, France, England, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, etc., present so favorable a position in education that comparison with Mexican conditions is less valuable. However, the progress that Mexico has to make has been made by all these countries. Thus the total percentage of illiterates, both under and over school age, diminished in Austria from 44.6 per cent in 1880 to 40.2 per cent in 1890, and in Hungary from 65.6 per cent in 1869 to 59.7 per cent in 1880 and to 54.6 per cent in 1890. The immensely high percentage of



The deficient instruction of the Mexican working classes, however, is being rapidly improved by the present Government, which during the last twenty-five years has dedicated itself to an active propagation of instruction. The number of schools is being rapidly increased, and both male and female education is being carried on in a great number of private and public schools. The demand for education is quite strong, (a) and the number of scholars in the schools is rapidly increasing. In 1876 (b) there were in the public schools 8,770 teachers and employees of all sorts, and 285,509 scholars, of whom 79,350 were females. According to the report of the minister of public works, in 1881 there were 324,026 male and 111,947 female, or in all 435,973 scholars, (c) which number increased to 544,000 within the same decade. In another part of this work the progress in the education of the laboring classes and of the total population of Mexico will be considered. At present, however, it may suffice to say that in the year 1898 there were 702,685 scholars in the public and 125,393 scholars in the private schools, making a total of 828,078 scholars for the country.

While the Mexican possesses certain characteristics which unfit him for complete success as a workman, there are other qualities, characteristic of the nation, which aid him. Although the average Mexican is not of great physique, the endurance of large masses of the population is remarkable. Humboldt, in describing the mines, has given many examples of the great powers of endurance of the Mexicans, and in everything which pertains to walking or carrying they are more particularly efficient. (d) When on the march the Mexican soldiers frequently make over 30 miles a day, and marches of 45 miles for infantry and 55 miles for cavalry are not rare. The Indians who

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illiterates in Italy has also diminished very greatly, the proportion of illiterates over 5 years of age amounting in 1861 to 68.09 per cent for the males and 81.27 per cent for the females, while in 1881 the proportion of illiterates over 6 years of age amounted to only 54.56 per cent and 69.32 per cent for the males and females, respectively; in the same period (1861-1881) the percentage of male illiterates over 20 years decreased from 65.47 per cent to 53.89 per cent, and that of female illiterates over 20 years from 81.52 per cent to 72.93 per cent. The illiteracy in Mexico and other parts of Latin America might perhaps best be compared with that existing in Italy and certain other portions of southern Europe; but general education, after all, is everywhere extremely modern. In 1898, 3.1 per cent of the grooms and 3.6 per cent of the brides in England and Wales signed the marriage register by mark; in 1863 the percentage was 23.8 and 33.1 per cent, and in 1843, 32.7 and 49 per cent, respectively, of the grooms and brides.

a Charles F. Lummis, in *The Awakening of a Nation*, New York and London, 1898, speaks of the "perfect mania" for schools. "There is now in Mexico no hamlet of 100 Indians which has not its free public school."

b Antoine García Cubas, *The Republic of Mexico in 1876*. Mexico, 1876.

c Antoine García Cubas, *Étude Géographique, Statistique et Historique des Etats Unis Mexicains*. Mexico, 1889.

d This power has been attributed, perhaps rather fantastically, to the fact that before the Spanish conquest there were no beasts of burden in Mexico.



come into the city with butter, eggs, and chickens for sale make remarkable distances on foot, and in ability to hold out for an indefinite time in walking, carrying, digging, or other simple mechanical operations the Mexican peon is unexcelled.

Another quality possessed by the Mexican population as a whole is a high degree of patience, as well as great docility. This patience is observed in a number of household manufactures, such as the making of drawn work, in which also is shown a very high degree of artistic ability. The artistic quality of the Mexican is beyond all question, and while hitherto there has been little industrial use made of it, it is a characteristic of the population which may be of great industrial benefit in the future. Closely allied to this is an extraordinary gift of imitation, which is possessed to a surprising degree by Mexicans at an early age, and which renders them particularly adept at learning new trades when afforded an opportunity. At the time of the conquest Spaniards were frequently astounded at the rapidity with which the various industries introduced by them were learned by the natives, and this quality has survived to this day. Owing to this national characteristic Mexicans who work under the guidance of foreigners rapidly acquire a knowledge of the industry, and by reason of their willingness to work for lower wages soon displace the imported employees. The power of imitation and the general susceptibility to new impressions or ideas of any sort are, of course, greatly lessened in that portion of the population which is prone to drunkenness, but on the whole there are very few people in whom quickness of perception and accuracy of imitation are so closely allied and so universally common as in the population of Mexico.

### OCCUPATIONS.

In the following table are presented the statistics of employment for Mexico in the year 1895. These statistics have been obtained from the industrial census of that year, which was taken in conjunction with the statistics of population. As a result, the figures are based upon the returns made by individuals employed and not by industrial establishments. This naturally prevents certain groupings of employees under the general industry in which they are engaged, and throws them in a class determined by the special work which they do. Thus, for instance, there are no returns for railroad employees, such persons being returned as machinists, engineers, mechanics, blacksmiths, carpenters, day laborers, etc.

This census, which appears to be the first industrial enumeration ever undertaken for the whole country, is by no means perfect. Many of the classifications are indeterminate and are very far from being mutually exclusive. There are also many occupations given which



appear of questionable utility, such as, to take a single illustration, *flarmonicas*, which appears to indicate music lovers as well as, if not rather than, professional musicians.

The most salient feature of the statistics is the disproportionately large percentage of persons, and especially males, engaged in agriculture, and the particularly large percentage of farm hands or *peones de campo*. Especially is this proportion of agricultural laborers large in comparison with those engaged in mining, commerce, the professions, and the industries and fine arts. With regard to industrial employees, the most striking fact about the statistics herewith presented seems to be the very large percentage of workmen in occupations that require no great division of labor but are carried on for a limited market and in small establishments. The statistics of bricklayers, carpenters, seamstresses, palm-mat makers, blacksmiths, horticulturists, laundresses, bakers, cigar makers, tailors, and shoemakers, as compared with the other categories, point to a large percentage of persons employed in industries conducted on a small scale. The table follows:

CLASSIFICATION OF MEXICAN POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS, 1895.

Occupation.	Number.	Occupation.	Number.
PROFESSIONAL, ETC.		COMMERCE.	
Architects .....	228	Agents, brokers .....	1,379
Building foremen .....	311	Bankers .....	42
Business agents and representatives .....	651	Clerks .....	17,318
Dentists .....	224	Hawkers and peddlers .....	9,766
Druggists .....	1,539	Merchants .....	167,161
Engineers (general) .....	1,797	Proprietors ( <i>propietarios</i> ) .....	37,556
Lawyers .....	3,222		
Mechanics ( <i>mecánicos</i> ) .....	5,319	INDUSTRIES, FINE ARTS, ETC.	
Midwives ( <i>a</i> ) .....	2,079	Acrobats .....	224
Ministers .....	177	Actors .....	337
Notaries .....	411	Artificial flower makers .....	1,663
Physicians (allopathic) .....	2,136	Artists (pictorial) .....	840
Physicians (homeopathic) .....	189	Authors .....	472
Roman Catholic priests .....	3,267	Bakers .....	26,611
Sailors .....	1,625	Barbers and hairdressers .....	6,143
Scholars .....	604,513	Basket makers .....	33
Students .....	27,999	Belt makers .....	8,178
Teachers .....	12,583	Biscuit makers and sellers .....	730
Veterinary surgeons .....	245	Blacksmiths .....	20,132
		Braziers .....	544
PUBLIC SERVICE.		Bookbinders .....	1,403
Army officers and chiefs .....	2,953	Brewers .....	306
Civil service employees .....	25,846	Bricklayers .....	41,473
Navy officers and chiefs .....	23	Brickmakers .....	3,574
Police .....	5,412	Bull fighters .....	132
Soldiers .....	21,922	Butchers .....	13,251
		Cabinetmakers .....	314
AGRICULTURE.		Calkers .....	1
Administrators, overseers, and assistants .....	46,940	Carpenters .....	54,110
Farmers .....	282,906	Charcoal makers .....	2,737
Field laborers ( <i>peones</i> ) .....	2,555,316	Cigar makers ( <i>pureros</i> ) .....	5,957
Live-stock hands .....	5,829	Cigarette makers .....	10,397
		Coachmen .....	3,702
MINING.		Coopers .....	302
Administrators and assistants .....	763	Coppersmiths .....	810
Employees in smelters and reduction works .....	5,755	Designers, draftsmen .....	257
Miners ( <i>mineros, barreteros, and pepanadores</i> ) .....	72,687	Divers .....	56
		Drivers .....	2,296
		Dyers .....	512
		Embroiderers .....	750
		Engravers .....	235
		Farriers .....	1,120

*a* And men employed at parturition.

## CLASSIFICATION OF MEXICAN POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS, 1895—Cont'd.

Occupation.	Number.	Occupation.	Number.
INDUSTRIES, FINE ARTS, ETC.—cont'd.		INDUSTRIES, FINE ARTS, ETC.—conc'd.	
Fireworks' makers.....	3,351	Sign painters and decorators.....	4,590
Fishermen, fishmongers.....	4,438	Silversmiths.....	4,539
Founders (general).....	956	Singers.....	206
Gardeners.....	861	Soap boilers.....	1,819
Gilders.....	372	Starch makers.....	52
Glaziers.....	372	Stonecutters.....	6,722
Glove makers.....	33	Tailors.....	24,254
Gunsmiths.....	224	Talladores de fibra.....	1,669
Gypsum workers.....	167	Tallow chandlers.....	3,506
Hackmen, wagoners.....	5,287	Tanners.....	10,273
Hatters and hat makers.....	18,628	Tapestry and mattress makers.....	843
Horticulturists.....	9,437	Telegraphers.....	1,557
Hunters.....	1,355	Tinsmiths.....	4,891
Indigo workers ( <i>añileros</i> ).....	202	Turners.....	927
Jarcieros ( <i>a</i> ).....	478	Turners, lathe makers, etc.....	551
Knife grinders.....	222	Typographers.....	3,148
Lace makers, etc. ( <i>galoneros y tira-</i> <i>dores</i> ).....	213	Watchmakers.....	785
Lace makers ( <i>pasamaneros</i> ).....	510	Wax chandlers.....	1,049
Lace workers ( <i>empuntadoras</i> ).....	972	Weavers.....	58,172
Lapidaries.....	174	Wood carriers.....	1,309
Last makers.....	411	Wool carders.....	35
Launderers and laundresses.....	49,460	Workmen (day laborers in industrial establishments).....	44,874
Lime burners.....	359		
Lithographers.....	488	MISCELLANEOUS.	
Matchmakers.....	459	Canoe makers.....	53
Milliners.....	2,738	Corn cake ( <i>tortilla</i> ) makers.....	33,315
Musicians ( <i>b</i> ).....	13,456	Day laborers ( <i>c</i> ).....	23,766
Oil venders.....	208	Domestic servants.....	269,336
Overseers and employees in industrial establishments.....	3,147	Dried brick (adobe) makers.....	2,086
Palm mat ( <i>petate</i> ) makers.....	11,518	Household workers.....	925,965
Palm weavers.....	7,039	Janitors.....	3,061
Pastry cooks.....	1,049	Mesalinas.....	2,581
Pastry makers and venders.....	4,322	Millers.....	210,319
Photographers.....	539	Muleteers.....	31,943
Plumbers.....	486	Private servants.....	22,262
Potters.....	19,587	Ticket sellers.....	422
Repairers of shoes.....	1,064	Water carriers.....	3,129
Sailors.....	2,000	Miscellaneous.....	9,821
Salt and saltpeter workers.....	483	Without occupation.....	2,806,945
Sculptors.....	578	Without occupation owing to minority	3,237,015
Seamstresses.....	70,125	Occupation unknown.....	305,535
Shoemakers.....	46,662		

*a* Possibly men employed in manufacture and sale of ship's tackle, rigging, cordage, etc.

*b* *Filarmónicos*; therefore apparently not, or not entirely professional musicians.

*c* In State of Vera Cruz only.

These statistics of occupation throw considerable light upon the industrial and labor conditions of the country, when considered territorially. The most important group is, of course, that of agriculturists, including proprietors, small owners, and farm hands. This group makes up 2,890,991 persons, or 23.2 per cent of the total population, male and female, reported as present in the census. This proportion varies, of course, in the different States, and is much larger in some than in others. Thus in Guanajuato 28 per cent of all the inhabitants included in the industrial census were classed as agriculturists, while in Yucatan the proportion was 27.8 per cent; in Queretaro, 27.7 per cent; in Tlascala, 17 per cent; in Oaxaca, 27 per cent; in Morelos, 26.7 per cent, and in Campeche, 21.4 per cent. In San Luis Potosi the proportion, however, was only 17.8 per cent, and in the Federal District, the population of which is chiefly industrial, only 6.2 per cent. In most occupations of an industrial nature the Federal



District has naturally a much larger percentage than the rest of the country.

Almost one-fifth of all Mexican lawyers reside in the City of Mexico, the proportion there making up 1.4 thousandths of the population, instead of one-fourth of one-thousandth for the whole country. The same holds true of druggists, over one-fifth of whom are in the district; of physicians, of whom over one-sixth are in the district, and of engineers, almost one-third of whom are in the district and the proportion of whom in the latter place is about ten times as great as for the whole country. The priesthood, however, is represented more widely through the country, and of these the Federal District has only about one-twelfth of the total. In professors and teachers of schools the City of Mexico has also a considerable preponderance, furnishing almost one-sixth of the total and having a proportion of 4 per thousand of the population, as compared with 1 per thousand of population for the whole country.

There are also other occupations which are largely associated with labor, in which the States with a large urban population show a greater proportion. In the matter of domestic and private services the City of Mexico shows a great preponderance. Thus of those engaged in domestic service more than one-seventh resided in the City of Mexico and the domestic servants there made up 8.4 per cent of the total population, as compared with 2.2 per cent of the population for the whole country. These figures show in a general way the vast amount of hired domestic service in the capital, although it is probable that in many portions of the country taken as a whole the statistics do not very exactly distinguish between domestic service which is hired and domestic service within a family itself. (a)

In the matter of private servants (*empleados particulares*) the City of Mexico contains almost one-third of the whole number in the country. In quite a number of other employments the concentration in the City of Mexico or in the Federal District is extremely great. Thus, of the total number of persons present at the census and returned as coachmen, 46 per cent resided in the Federal District. In other words, while there were 4 coachmen in the city per thousand of the population, in the rest of the country there was only one-sixth of 1 coachman per thousand of the population. The employment of barbers is more widely and evenly distributed, though in the City of Mexico there are 2 per thousand of the population, and in the whole country only 1 for every two thousand of the population. In the City of Mexico there

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<sup>a</sup> In confirmation of this, see the statistics of domestic service in Sinaloa, Sonora, and Chiapas, which give 6.3, 5.4, and 5.5 per cent, respectively, as the proportion between the number of domestic servants and the total population, male and female, adults and minors, present at the census of those States. The amount of wealth and its distribution in the latter States would preclude the possibility of so large a proportion of the population being devoted to hired domestic service.



were about 13 carpenters per thousand of the population; in Nuevo Leon, Jalisco, and Yucatan, 6; in Aguas Calientes, Tabasco, Tlascala, Lower California, Tepic, and Colima, 5 each, and for the whole country, 4 per thousand. In employees in the manufacture of cigarettes, the Federal District shows about 4 per thousand, as compared to 0.8 per thousand for the whole country.

With regard to the persons who are unemployed, although over 14 years of age, the statistics are, unfortunately, very faulty. According to these statistics, 2,806,945 persons were given as without occupation, although over 14 years of age, of whom 249,516 were men and 2,557,429 were women. In a number of States, however, persons were returned as with occupations, although in all probability they were without any, and persons returned as household workers in one State were given as without employment in another. Thus, although out of the total population of the country given as present and including both males and females, adults and minors, 22.5 per cent were given as persons over 14 years of age without occupation, this proportion for the State of Oaxaca is given at only 4.5 per cent; that of Lower California, 4.3; that of Campeche, 3.2; that of Guerrero, 1.8; that of Aguas Calientes, 1.4; that of Tabasco, 0.1; that of Vera Cruz, 0.05, and that of Puebla, 0.03. On the other hand, the proportion which the total number of persons over 14 years of age and unemployed bears to the total population present, amounted to 32.5 per cent in Jalisco, to 32.8 in Morelos, to 35.6 in Guanajuato, to 38.5 in Hidalgo, and to 46.8 in Michoacan. These differences are clearly traceable to no other cause than to the difference in the method of returning persons of indefinite employment, all persons engaged in household work or supported at home, or with irregular and not easily determined employment. There is nothing in the industrial conditions of the State of Puebla that would account for only 246 persons over 14 years of age and out of school being without employment, while the proportion of 46.8 per cent for the State of Michoacan is manifestly impossible. The results of the latter States are manifestly due to defective registration, and it is probable that a great many persons whose occupation had not been determined by the census taker were simply put down as without occupation. (a)

The figures of persons without occupation should therefore be taken in connection with those of domestic service and household workers.

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a An indication of the inexactness of the statistics of Michoacan is to be found in the fact that the returns give, for the persons employed in agriculture and for persons of 14 years or over without occupation, a considerably larger figure than the total number of males and females of the age of 14 or over in the whole State. It is interesting to note that the same State of Michoacan is the one in which the civil registration of marriage is most defective, and in which the proportion of technically illegitimate births, largely from this cause, is greatest.



With regard to the 250,000 men included in the statistics of persons without occupation, it is probable that these figures are of more or less questionable value, as, in certain States, notably Michoacan, the figures are unduly swelled, whereas in other States even the adult males who belong to the dependent classes do not seem to be returned as without occupation.

### THE SYSTEM OF PEONAGE.

The agricultural labor system in Mexico, as it exists to-day, is the result of an evolution from the earliest times of the conquest. This development has been as different from that in the Northern free States of the United States as could well be imagined, and the character of land tenure and of land tillage to-day is directly traceable to the conditions arising out of the first contact of the Spaniards with the natives.

The agricultural system of the Spaniards was based upon the forced labor of Indians. The conquerors and the colonists in New Spain did not venture their lives for the sake of tilling the soil by the sweat of their brows, but chose adventure as a direct means to wealth and idleness.<sup>(a)</sup> Nor was their lot cast amid nations of warlike natives, roaming over an extensive country and living chiefly by fishing and hunting, but amid a comparatively docile and tractable race, long accustomed to the peaceful pursuits of agriculture. The conditions for forced native labor for the benefit of the conquering whites were therefore given.

Nor is it quite evident that any other system than that of forced labor was possible under the then existing circumstances, especially in view of the fiscal demands of the Crown and the necessities of the colonists. The soldiers of Cortes had been cruelly disappointed in their hopes of obtaining large amounts of gold and silver, and any grant of land was illusory without the right to force natives to work upon it. Of what value were mines or plantations, however rich or extensive, unless there were also granted the right to obtain labor under favorable terms to exploit these natural resources?

The creation of the labor system in Mexico, or New Spain, as it was formerly called, was not due to a consciously adopted policy on the

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<sup>a</sup> "All the labor of mining, of tillage, of stock raising, and of household drudgery was performed by the natives. There is no evidence that any Spaniard during that [the sixteenth] or the following century, made a nearer approach to manual labor than superintending from his saddle the movements of native workmen."—H. Bancroft, *History of Mexico*, Volume II, pp. 538, 539. Speaking of somewhat similar though worse conditions in Hayti, Fiske (*Discovery of America*, Volume II, p. 443) says: "Many of the wretches [Spanish colonists] were the offscourings of camps, the vile refuse of European wars; some of them were criminals, sent out here to disencumber Spanish jails. Of course they had no notion of working with their own hands, or of wielding any implement of industry except the lash."



part of the Crown of Spain, but arose out of the necessities and greed of the resident Spaniards and despite the opposition of the home government. The orders of the King and his instructions to his viceroys breathe a spirit of humanitarianism toward the copper-colored converts to Catholicism, and there seems to have been a real desire on the part of the King and his advisers to mitigate the onerous conditions of native labor on the farm and in the mine. The Emperor (Charles V) feared that if any damage resulted to the Indians it would be at the peril of his own soul, and His Majesty was very anxious to save his soul, provided that no diminution of the royal revenue resulted as a consequence.

At the beginning of the Spanish era a certain amount of labor upon the farms was carried on by Indian slaves. The Aztecs had held slaves, conquered in war with other tribes and sold in the public mart at Tenochtitlan (City of Mexico), and the Spaniards followed in their footsteps. The Indian chiefs were obliged to surrender their slaves, captives were taken in the numerous raids and forays into hostile territory, peaceable natives were forcibly enslaved, others enticed into slavery by means of incurring debt or liability for petty offenses, and thus the body of Indian slaves grew with the demand for labor. These slaves were branded, treated with great harshness, and overworked to the point of exhaustion and premature death, despite the humane laws enacted at Madrid. The chief use of the slaves, however, appears to have been in the mines and on the highways, while for the needs of agriculture a sort of serfdom or mitigated slavery grew up under the rights of *repartimiento* and *encomienda*.

By *repartimiento* was meant the original distribution of natives among the conquerors; by *encomienda* the second or subsequent grant or redistribution of the natives upon the death or disability of their first master. The system was one of practical slavery, although theoretically conceived in a more humane spirit, as a means of caring for and protecting the Indians and hastening their conversion to Christianity.<sup>(a)</sup> It had been in vogue for a score of years in the West Indies, and the abuses to which it had there led resulted in the rapid depopulation of the islands and in the almost complete extermination of the native race.

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<sup>a</sup> According to Fiske (Discovery of America, Volume II, p. 443) "the system of *encomiendas* was unmitigated slavery," while that "of *repartimientos* was in effect serfdom or villenage." Originally the word signified "commandery" or "preceptory" in the Catholic religion, and as the system was introduced into Cuba by the governor, Ovando, it was with a deed worded thus: "To you, such a one, is given an *encomienda* of so many Indians, and you are to teach them the things of our holy Catholic faith." The theory was at the widest possible variance with the facts, but the truly horrible conditions that prevailed in Cuba and Guatemala seem to have been considerably mitigated in Mexico.



In Mexico, Cortes, owing to the superior intelligence of the natives of New Spain, rebelled, or affected to rebel, at the inauguration of such a policy, but finally ceded to the strong and violent pressure of soldiers and officeholders and granted provisionally, and subject to confirmation by Madrid, great *encomiendas* to the conquerors, to newer and more recently arrived favorites, to certain Indian caciques, and finally to himself. The church also shared in this wholesale distribution of the population of native villages, the whole European population of the country thus becoming interested in the maintenance of the institution.

The first impulse of the court was praiseworthy and was immediately acted upon. By royal order of June 26, 1523, the *repartimientos* were revoked and the institution abolished. Cortes, however, with his usual suave audacity, suppressed the order and represented to his august sovereign that its enforcement would result in the impoverishment and ruin of the settlers. He further claimed that immigration would cease, the royal revenues decrease, apostolic conversion be crippled, discontent ensue, and finally even that the newly won territory might be lost to the crown of Spain. Remonstrances against the prohibitions of *repartimientos* flowed in from all sources and the crown receded from its position.

By this distribution of the natives the labor system of the country was once for all settled upon a definite basis, and one not unduly favorable to the natives. Side by side with legally established slavery there came to exist this vast system of serfdom, and natives were distributed in great blocks, and even sold and exchanged for a money consideration. Despite several laws passed in order to create a responsibility upon the part of the master, or *encomendero*, the natives were transferred or sold; in some cases whole villages going for from \$500 to \$1,000. Great numbers of natives were held by a single individual; in 1564 it was discovered that Don Martin Cortes, the son of the conqueror, had upward of 60,000 natives in the towns assigned to him.

The adoption of serfdom under the *encomienda* system exerted a tremendous influence upon the whole subsequent labor development of Mexico, and prevented the growth of independent holdings of small properties, while it favored extensive and not economically managed plantations. The actual condition of the serfs, perhaps, was not as unfortunate as might be supposed. The *encomendero*, or master, was obliged to furnish food as well as merchandise to the value of half a dollar per year, a sum not exorbitant, even in view of the Indian's modest requirements for clothing. He was also supposed to provide educational and religious facilities for the natives, and not to allow them to work for a longer time than from sunrise to an hour before sunset, with an hour at noon for rest. It was also prohibited to carry the



*encomienda* Indians to the mines (where slaves were employed) or to force them to work at places very distant from their native villages.

The *encomiendas* were at first granted only for a short time, with the idea that they should revert to the Crown at the death of the recipient. They were usually regranted, however, to his descendants, to whom they were confirmed during good behavior. They were subsequently entailed for one or more generations, and in the case of certain families, granted in perpetuity, on the theory that this would result in the growth of a feeling of responsibility toward the vassals so distributed.

Despite humane laws, however, the greed of resident Spaniards and the venality or carelessness of royal officials permitted abuses to spring up, and in 1543 the court of Spain, incited by the eloquence of Las Casas, the noble protector of the Indians, endeavored gradually to abolish *encomiendas*. A special representative of the King (called a *visitador*) was sent to Mexico to proclaim a royal order by which those who held too many vassals were to surrender the excess; no new *encomiendas* were to be created under any circumstances, while those who illtreated their Indians were to surrender them to the Crown forthwith. All ecclesiastical and civil officials and all religious bodies were to be deprived of their vassals immediately, and special officers were to be appointed for the proper care and protection of the Indians.<sup>(a)</sup> The opposition on the part of all influential classes, and especially of the clergy, was, however, so resolute that the viceroy succeeded in delaying action until, by decree of October 20, 1545, the sharpness of these decrees was lessened and the prohibition restricted to the further extension of the system. Thus while in a manner the "new laws," as amended, give almost a legal sanction to the system of *encomiendas*, it tended somewhat to prevent their worst abuses and provided by an ultimate reversion to the Crown for the gradual emancipation of the natives. As the *encomenderos* died without legitimate issue, their rights escheated to the Crown. The impoverishment of many whites, moreover, and their industrial and sexual union with natives, gradually raised the standard of the peons from the low state it occupied at the beginning of the conquest.

The institution of *repartimientos* and *encomiendas* in Mexico has been of profound and lasting influence on the economic status of the workman, and especially of the agricultural laborer. The former wide, deep gulf between the Spaniard and the native, the ownership of the land by the former, and the forced labor by the latter, have perpetuated a certain form of labor organization and have inbred certain now scarcely eradicable faults. There was nothing in the climate or other

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<sup>a</sup> For the history of this attempt, see Bancroft's History of Mexico, Volume II, pages 516-529.



natural conditions on the great central plateau that presaged the evolution of the plantation system and the degradation and incompetence of the tillers of the soil. It was by force of the authority of the State and not by that of natural conditions that the peon was held from the ownership of land, and even since the successful revolution of the Mexicans against the mother country (Spain) the fundamental relations between landed proprietor and serf have not been entirely changed. (*a*)

### AGRICULTURAL LABOR.

In the popular conception Mexico is always regarded as a country the main industry of which is mining. Ever since the days of the conquest the main exports have consisted of silver, and from that day until this the country has paid off its foreign creditors in metal. During the days of the colonial régime the cargoes taken from the country by the galleons of Spain consisted chiefly of a thin stream of the white metal, and, even in Humboldt's time, the preponderance of the export of silver was very great. In 1882-83 the exports of precious and other metals amounted to \$29,628,657.69 in silver, out of a total exportation of \$41,807,596.25; in 1885-86 to \$29,906,400.83 out of a total of \$43,647,717.30; in 1888-89 to \$38,785,274.99 out of a total of \$60,158,423.02, and in 1891-92 to \$49,137,303.98 out of a total of \$75,467,714.95. (*b*) During this period of ten years the export of the metals averaged from 57 to 72 per cent of the total. Even in the year 1898-99 the export of metals and minerals amounted to \$96,233,548, or 64.9 per cent of the total, while that of the precious metals and ores alone made up \$86,171,354, or 58 per cent. The value of the precious metals and ores exported was 213 per cent as great as that of vegetable products, and 194 per cent as great as that of both vegetable and animal products exported. (*c*)

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*a* "A student of the conditions of rural life in the Middle Ages would find great enlightenment in a few weeks on one of these great estates (of from 15,000 to over 300,000 acres on the central plateau of Mexico). In the residence of the proprietor he would find himself walled about in a manner to suggest the stronghold of the mediæval baron. The extent of the estate he would find not less than that of the barony, and the authority of the later lord equal to that of the earlier. He would find the peons who live on the estate as dependent as were the serfs, and their method of working quite as crude. Contemporary illustrations show the mediæval serf working with a rude hoe, but the Mexican serf, in completing the work of cultivating the corn after the plow, often uses only his hands. The desire of the modern fuedal lord, moreover, to preserve his estate entire for his descendants, regardless of economic considerations, appears to be as strong as it was in his European predecessor; and it is that which stands as the chief hindrance to a speedy revolutionizing of rural life and cultivation in the especially fertile parts of the country, such as the region about Guadalajara or on the eastern slope between Tampico and San Luis Potosi."—B. Moses, *The Railway Revolution in Mexico*, page 61. San Francisco, 1895.

*b* Matias Romero, *Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico*, page 167.

*c* Comercio Exterior y Navegación. Año fiscal de 1898-99. Mexico, 1901.



While the exportation of metals has always exceeded that of agriculture the actual production in agriculture has been greater. From the statistics of the various crops, published by the Federal Government, which, however, are probably somewhat below the truth, it would appear that the agricultural product for the year 1898 equaled in value about \$248,000,000, or over two and one-half times as great as the value of the mineral production. Of this total sum of \$248,000,000 there was \$98,200,000, or 39.6 per cent of the total agricultural production, obtained from cereals, and \$72,800,000, or 29.3 per cent of the total, from corn alone.

While agriculture brings in the largest proportion of the total annual income of the country, the proportion of men employed in that branch of industry is very far in excess of that employed in all other industrial enterprises in the Republic. According to the statistics of occupations for the year 1895, published in the census by the department of public promotion (*Fomento*), the number of males employed in agriculture was 2,880,842 out of an active body of 3,779,953 engaged in gainful occupations other than employment in household or domestic service, or in other words 76.2 per cent of the whole. Including those engaged in domestic service, the total number of males employed in gainful occupations would amount to 3,861,425, of which 74.6 per cent were engaged in agriculture.

In order to show the extreme preponderance of agriculture in Mexico, a comparison is here made between the proportion of population engaged in agriculture in Mexico and that which is similarly engaged in other countries. This comparison is not in all respects perfect, as the basis of classification in the different countries is not exactly the same, but it will at all events suffice to show the vast preponderance of agricultural labor in Mexico. According to the industrial census of 1895 (included in the quinquennial enumeration of that year) the number of males present in Mexico was 6,190,311. Of these, however, 1,639,025 were unemployed, owing to minority; 366,205, in school or college; 249,516, without occupation; 74,140, with occupation unknown, and 81,472, engaged in household or domestic service. As a consequence there remained only 3,779,953 males engaged in known occupations other than that of domestic service, of which number 2,880,842, or 76.2 per cent, were engaged in agriculture. In Germany, on the other hand, according to the census of 1895 (June 14), there were 18,068,663 persons employed in agriculture, or dependent upon persons employed in agriculture, out of a total population of 51,770,284, or out of a total of 48,443,215 persons with a gainful occupation or dependent upon persons with a gainful occupation. In other words, of the total population dependent upon gainful occupations, only 37.3 per cent were directly dependent upon agriculture, while 41.8 per cent were dependent on mining, metal works, and other industries. Of the remainder, 12.3 per cent were engaged in commerce and trade, 5.9 per



cent in the professions and the military and civil service, 1.8 per cent in domestic service, and 0.9 per cent in forestry and fisheries. In Prussia the proportion of persons dependent upon agriculture amounted to 38.6 per cent of those depending on gainful occupations; in Bavaria to 49.5 per cent; in Saxony, however, only to 16.1 per cent. The percentage of persons actually employed in agriculture would be considerably less, since the number of persons dependent upon each agricultural laborer is larger than in the other occupations; in other words, the number of habitual workmen per 100 persons dependent upon a given occupation is less in agriculture than in other industries.

In the United States in 1890 the number of male persons employed in agriculture (including agricultural laborers, apiarists, dairymen and dairywomen, farmers, planters, and overseers, stock raisers, herders and drovers, wood choppers, and others engaged in agricultural pursuits) was 7,751,018. In other words, of the total number of males engaged in active service only 41.2 per cent were employed in the various agricultural pursuits.

In France, a representative agricultural country, out of a total population in 1891 of 34,659,385 dependent upon a known gainful occupation, 17,435,888, or 50.3 per cent, were dependent upon agriculture, either as employers, employees, clerks, overseers, workmen, dependents in the household, or domestic servants. If domestics engaged by families occupied in agriculture be excluded from this class, the percentage of persons dependent on agriculture will amount to only 48.3 per cent of the total persons dependent upon gainful occupations. Excluding both domestic servants and dependents in the household, there were directly engaged in agriculture 6,535,599, which equal 41.7 per cent of all persons directly engaged in all occupations except domestic service, and 37.8 per cent of all persons directly employed in all occupations, including domestic service.

The statistics of the distribution of persons engaged in agriculture among employers, clerks, administrators, and independent agriculturists, as compared with farm laborers, throw light upon the character of land tenure and cultivation. In France, for example, according to the census of 1891, of the total number of persons engaged in agriculture 54.6 per cent were counted as employers or independent farmers, 1.2 per cent as employees, clerks, and overseers, and only 44.2 per cent as workmen or hands. In Mexico, on the contrary, of the total number of persons employed in 1895 only 1.7 per cent were included in administrators, overseers, and assistants, and only 9.7 per cent as farmers (*agricultores*), while 88.4 per cent or, if the live-stock hands be included, 88.6 per cent were farm hands or day laborers (*peones*) (*a*). It is quite

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*a* The word "peon" is now used in the sense of agricultural worker of a low, unskilled type, although in former times it signified approximately what is understood by the word serf.

possible that a number of persons classed as farmers were really farm laborers, but even upon the face of the statistics the proportion which the agricultural farm laborer bore to persons engaged in agriculture and to the total population engaged in industry was very great indeed. The following table shows the number of persons engaged in agriculture, distributed by classes, in the States of the Republic:

PERSONS ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE, BY STATES, 1895.

State.	Admin- istrators and as- sistants.	Farmers.	Live stock hands.	Farm hands (peons).
CENTRAL STATES.				
Federal District.....	615	.....	.....	28,517
Aguas Calientes.....	38	3,210	.....	19,928
San Luis Potosi.....	2,455	.....	.....	97,561
Guanajuato.....	362	.....	.....	293,041
Queretaro.....	24	12,385	.....	49,811
Hidalgo.....	5,814	.....	.....	108,598
Mexico.....	3,172	1,575	.....	189,172
Morelos.....	111	1,393	115	40,267
Tlascala.....	696	.....	.....	27,068
Puebla.....	125	15,849	.....	204,570
Durango.....	115	1,645	.....	72,161
Zacatecas.....	1,799	4,246	.....	85,958
NORTHERN STATES.				
Sonora.....	1,097	.....	.....	45,306
Chihuahua.....	123	33,804	.....	29,418
Coahuila.....	2	.....	.....	53,029
Nuevo Leon.....	22	45,705	2,858	20,873
GULF STATES.				
Tamaulipas.....	23	.....	.....	44,562
Vera Cruz.....	12,023	2,397	514	185,389
Tabasco.....	46	25,493	.....	4,058
Campeche.....	88	13,303	.....	5,277
Yucatan.....	666	682	.....	81,136
PACIFIC STATES.				
Michoacan.....	6,527	.....	.....	199,817
Colima.....	22	3,669	.....	9,175
Guerrero.....	3	12,631	.....	93,324
Jalisco.....	1,996	9,539	.....	260,165
Sinaloa.....	2,584	13,659	.....	49,555
Chiapas.....	47	53,409	40	21,632
Oaxaca.....	6,319	26,026	.....	203,767
Tepic.....	14	973	.....	27,589
Lower California.....	12	1,313	2,302	4,592
Total.....	46,940	282,906	5,829	2,555,316

According to the crop statistics of the Mexican Government, the total value of all agricultural products for the year 1898 was less than \$250,000,000 silver, while according to the census of occupations the number of males engaged in agriculture was 2,880,842. It is possible that the number of persons engaged is somewhat exaggerated; it is probable that the value of the crops is considerably underestimated. Assuming the figures, however, to be correct, the total receipts from agriculture, per male employed, amounted to only \$86.78 silver per year, or, on the assumption of a silver dollar being worth 50 cents gold, to a value expressed in gold equal only to a little over 83 cents per week per male employed. However great a margin of error may reasonably be assumed, the returns from agriculture must appear abnormally small



in proportion to the number of persons employed, and even by these crude figures, a striking indication is furnished of the extremely unproductive employment of the agricultural population.

Another indication of the extremely unproductive character of Mexican agricultural labor is furnished by the fact that this great body of men produces no exportable effects. The total exportation of vegetable and animal products amounts to only \$49,576,789 or less than \$25,000,000 gold. It would appear that, at least on the great plateau, the total employment of by far the vast majority of the population hardly suffices to sustain the actual workers and their families and the small urban and mining and industrial population. Despite the great number of men employed in the raising of corn, there has never been any considerable exportation of that product; in fact, the importation of that cereal is considerably in excess of its exportation.

If we except from this exportation the sisal grass, which is produced in Yucatan, we find that the total exportation of all the other States amounts to less than \$15,000,000 silver, or to less than \$7,500,000 gold. Despite the immense amount of labor applied to it, the production of corn does not even suffice for the meager requirements of the Mexican population, to say nothing of a possible exportation. The United States has always been called upon to furnish its quota to Mexico, the exportation averaging about 120,000 bushels per year from 1858 to 1883, while from 1891 to 1900 the total quantity exported was 20,300,000 bushels, amounting in value to \$9,800,000 gold,<sup>(a)</sup> only 43,000 bushels being received in return. While the United States in 1900 retained for domestic consumption 24.44 bushels per head of population, the consumption in Mexico is, according to official statistics, only about 7 bushels, although this forms the main staple of consumption. Despite this vastly smaller consumption of corn and the great army employed in its production, there is no exportable surplus.

The low productivity of Mexican agricultural labor is partly a consequence and partly a cause of the extremely low agricultural wages.

#### AGRICULTURAL WAGES.

The agricultural wages in Mexico can not be given with any approach toward the accuracy observable in the statistics of some other countries, owing to the fact that there has never been any exact data procured by the Government upon a thorough and accurate basis. Instead of the total number of agricultural laborers of Mexico, divided into

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<sup>a</sup> The exact figures for the decade ending June 30, 1900, were 20,303,452 bushels, of a value of \$9,808,543 United States currency. The years of greatest exportation of corn to Mexico were 1893, when 6,960,356 bushels, and 1897, when 8,825,860 bushels were exported. The smallest exportation was in the year 1898, amounting to only 125,310 bushels.



classes, according to their daily wages and with allowance made for rations or other advantages, there is only a series of normal or average rates prevailing in various parts of the country. These rates, however, are the more to be relied upon, as the wages paid are usually based on certain norms, and do not vary greatly between different plantations within the same district.

The statistics which are here presented in order to be understood, must be brought into relation with the actual condition of labor, regarding what is known of the hours of labor, the legal and actual nature of the contract between the employer and his workman, and the character of the duties performed.

The wages which are here given are in all cases expressed in silver, unless the contrary is expressly stated. In considering wages, prices, and other statistics of Mexico, it must not be lost sight of that everything is calculated upon a silver basis, and that this metal has, during the last quarter of a century, greatly depreciated in value. At the present time the value of the silver dollar fluctuates around a point somewhat below 50 cents expressed in gold, and with every change in its selling price in the markets of New York or London, the actual wages of Mexican laborers and the prices of Mexican products, as expressed in silver, become of less value when expressed in gold, which is the international medium of exchange.

The wages of Mexican labor are expressed in silver, and have not, as a general rule, been translated into gold. In the eyes of the Mexican laborer a silver standard is something absolute, and the value of silver in the world's market does not enter into his calculations. The effect of the silver standard in decreasing the purchasing power of his money is considerably less than might perhaps be supposed, and the tendency for his wages to increase in silver with every decrease in the value of the silver dollar is very much less than what might be true in a more intelligent and less tradition-bound laboring population. In the treatment of the subject of prices the question of the silver standard will be briefly considered. At the present it suffices to state that, from the point of view of the laborer and from that also of the Mexican manufacturer or agriculturist producing for the home market only, the silver standard is alone of importance. It is only in the case of persons manufacturing for a foreign market, or depending in large measure on foreign raw materials or foreign-made machines, that the question of the fluctuation between silver and gold enters largely into calculation. (a)

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a For example, in the case of the railroads, which are owned, as a rule, by foreign capital, and with bonds the interest on which is payable in gold, any depreciation in the value of silver works obvious and great hardship, since freight and passenger rates are in silver and can not readily be increased with every fall in the value of silver. On the other hand, the production of sisal grass would be apt to flourish all



According to the report made by the treasury department in the year 1880 the wages of agricultural labor in the various parts of the country were very low. (a) From this report it is possible to show how wages vary in different parts of the country owing to differences in density of population and climate. In the States which are densely populated, but which up to the present time have not largely developed their manufacturing industries, wages rank lowest of all. In these regions there is usually an excess of population over and above the needs of the industry and an extremely wasteful expenditure of human labor in everything which relates to agriculture. Where the population is dense, however, and manufacturing industries are commencing, wages rise to a higher level, and this is more especially observed in the neighborhood of great cities, where the beginnings of manufacturing permit a partial diversion of labor from agriculture. Wages are highest of all in those States which are hot, where the climate is unhealthy, and in which, as a result of these conditions, population is sparse. Generally speaking, wages are high in proportion to the sparseness of the agricultural population, to the heat and unhealthiness of the region, to the presence of large industrial establishments in the neighborhood, and by reason of the proximity to great cities.

According to the report before mentioned, agricultural wages (silver) in Aguas Calientes averaged in the year 1878 from 12½ to 18 and even 25 cents per day, according to the age and capability of the man employed, or with rations from \$2 to \$4 per month. This State is perhaps one of the best illustrations of those with a dense population and consequent low wages. In Guanajuato similar conditions existed for similar reasons, the wages there also ranging between 12½ and 25 cents per day, together with rations of corn. The conditions were slightly better in the State of Mexico, where wages averaged from 18 to 25 cents, according to age, without rations, or from \$4 to \$5 per month with rations. In that State the improvement in the conditions was due to the advances already made at that time in manufacturing, especially in the city of Toluca, and these favorable conditions are observed to a still greater degree in the populous State of Puebla, where the cotton industry, then in rapid growth, caused the wages of agricultural labor to rise to from 25 to 31 cents per day, together with land to till. In Queretaro, on the other hand, wages were extremely low, averaging 18 cents per day without and from \$3 to \$4 per month with rations.

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the more with every decrease in the value of silver, since the cost of labor in proportion to the price of the product, measured in silver, would become less with every depreciation in the value of silver. The prices of most articles of home production are only partially, if at all, influenced by fluctuations in the value of the standard; those of imported articles reflect immediately every change in the market value of silver.

*a* Estadística de la República Mexicana. Resumen y Análisis de los Informes Rendidos á la Secretaría de Hacienda, por Emiliano Busto. 3 vols. Mexico, 1880.



In the hot country the wages were considerably higher. Thus, in Campeche the average wage paid was 25 to 37 cents per day, while stewards were paid \$15 to \$20 per month. In Colima 25 cents per day were paid, or with rations of corn, meat, salt, and beans, from \$2 to \$4 per month, while in Sinaloa the wages were 50 cents per day, and in Lower California it was claimed that the wages of agricultural labor ranged from 75 cents to \$1 (silver) per day, or with rations to from \$15 to \$20 per month.

Since the period stated the increase in the amount of wages paid to peons in the highlands has increased somewhat, and that paid in the lowlands has increased considerably. An analysis of the wages of agricultural labor, made in 1893 by the Government of Mexico, (*a*) presents the statistics of wages for the various classes of agricultural labor in the different States. According to this it appears that the minimum wages of peons in Guerrero and Aguas Calientes were 12 and 13 cents; those of Mexico, Hidalgo, Michoacan, Tamaulipas, Guanajuato, Nuevo Leon, Puebla, Vera Cruz, Zacatecas, San Luis Potosi were 18 cents; those of Campeche, Jalisco, Coahuila, Durango, Oaxaca, and Yucatan were 25 cents, and those of Sonora, Tabasco, Colima, Chihuahua, Federal District, and Morelos, 37 cents. The following table shows agricultural wages in detail from the report referred to:

DAILY WAGES (SILVER) OF MEN ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE IN 1893, BY STATES.

State.	Major-domos.	Overseers.	Herders.	Shepherds.	Pulque hands.	Peons.
Aguas Calientes.....	\$0.25-\$0.37	\$0.25-\$0.37	\$0.13-\$0.20	.....	.....	\$0.13-\$0.25
Campeche.....	.50- 1.50	.25- .31	.25- .75	\$0.25	.....	.25- .50
Mexico.....	.37- 1.00	.25- .50	.18- .50	\$0.18- .25	\$0.28-\$0.37	.18- .50
Guerrero.....	.75- 1.00	.50	.37- .50	.....	.....	.12- .31
Hidalgo.....	.37- 1.00	.18- .50	.18- .50	.18- .31	.37	.18- .50
Jalisco.....	.37- 1.00	.25- .50	.25- .50	.25- .50	.37	.25- .50
Michoacan.....	.50- 2.00	.25- .50	.25- .50	.18- .37	.18- .50	.18- .75
Sonora.....	.62- 1.00	.50- 1.75	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.....	.37- 1.00
Tabasco.....	.75- 1.00	.50- .75	.25- .50	.25- .50	.....	.37- 1.00
Coahuila.....	.50- .75	.37- .50	.37- .50	.25	.37	.25- .37
Colima.....	1.00	.....	.....	.25- .37	.....	.37- .75
Tamaulipas.....	.50	.18- .25	.18- .25	.....	.....	.18- .25
Chihuahua.....	.....	.50- .75	.50- .75	.....	.....	.37- .62
Durango.....	.50- 1.00	.31- .62	.31- .50	.25- .37	.....	.25- .37
Guanajuato.....	.37- 1.00	.37- .62	.25- .37	.18- .25	.18- .25	.18- .25
Nuevo Leon.....	.75- 1.00	.25- 1.00	.25- .75	.18- .50	.37- .50	.18- .50
Oaxaca.....	.50- 1.00	.37- .50	.50	.....	.....	.25- .50
Puebla.....	.50- 1.00	.37- .50	.25- .60	.18- .31	.25- .66	.18- .50
Vera Cruz.....	.50- 1.25	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.....	.18- .37
Yucatan.....	1.00- 1.25	.....	.50- .75	.25- .50	.....	.25- .75
Zacatecas.....	.37- .75	.25- 1.00	.25- .75	.37- .50	.18- .50	.18- .50
Federal District.....	1.00- 1.50	.50	.50	.37- .50	.37- .50	.37- .40
San Luis Potosi.....	.50- .83	.40	.20	.18- .20	.18- .25	.18- .25
Morelos.....	1.00- 2.00	.50	.50	.....	.....	.37- 1.00

An analysis of this table shows that since the development of tropical agriculture and the opening of the foreign market for the tropical products of Mexico the increase in the wages of peons, measured in silver, appears much greater than those paid to the peon in the

*a* Reproduced in the report of Mr. Matthew M. Ransom, United States minister to the Republic of Mexico and ascribed to official sources.



temperate regions. Further proof of this is furnished later in this article, where the wages of labor in various agricultural industries in Vera Cruz, Yucatan, Tabasco, Chiapas, etc., are furnished. It does not follow from this that the conditions of labor in the hot countries are more favorable than those where wages are lower; on the contrary, the general condition of agricultural labor in Mexico is probably less favorable where wages are at their highest. The wages, however, of the various States are almost in direct proportion to the sparseness of population, as is shown in the following table:

STATES IN WHICH THE MINIMUM WAGES OF PEONS ARE 18 CENTS OR LESS, 25 CENTS, AND 37 CENTS, WITH DENSITY OF POPULATION.

Minimum wages 18 cents or less.	Population per square mile.	Minimum wages 25 cents.	Population per square mile.	Minimum wages 37 cents.	Population per square mile.
Aguas Calientes.....	35.1	Campeche.....	5.0	Sonora .....	2.4
Mexico .....	90.7	Jalisco.....	34.8	Tabasco .....	13.3
Hidalgo .....	61.6	Coahuila .....	3.7	Colima .....	24.5
Michoacan .....	38.8	Durango .....	7.7	Chihuahua.....	3.0
Tamaulipas .....	6.3	Oaxaca.....	24.9	Morelos .....	57.6
Guanajuato .....	92.1	Yucatan.....	8.4	Federal District .....	
Nuevo Leon .....	13.1				
Puebla .....	80.2				
Vera Cruz .....	29.3				
Zacatecas.....	18.2				
San Luis Potosi.....	22.5				
Guerrero .....	16.7				
Arithmetical mean	42.1	Arithmetical mean	14.1	Arithmetical mean	26.2

Of the twelve States in which the minimum wages of peons are 18 cents or less almost all are situated on the great central plateau and are those which, in the main, furnish the great bulk of population. They are also the States in which the mining industry is prevalent, and with a cold climate and a fertility of the soil less than elsewhere. Vera Cruz and Guerrero may perhaps be considered as partial exceptions and Tamaulipas as a complete exception to this rule.

In the second group the population is much sparser. No State in the second group has a density of population as great as the mean for the whole first group. This group includes the States of Campeche, Oaxaca, and Yucatan, with a tropical climate, and four States, Coahuila, Campeche, Durango, and Yucatan, with a density of population very much smaller than the mean for the whole of Mexico. The whole group is very much less densely settled than the first, and the population here is sparser than the average of Mexico, including all States and Territories. The higher wages of the State of Jalisco are probably to be ascribed to the effect of its large city, Guadalajara, on agricultural wages.

The third group consists of States with a very sparse population, other States which are hot and unhealthy, and, finally, the Federal District itself. The population of Sonora and Chihuahua is only 2.4 and 3 per square mile, respectively, while the States of Colima and

Tabasco are in the very center of the hot regions. Agricultural wages in the Federal District are higher, owing to the demand in the City of Mexico for labor of all sorts.

The maximum wages of peons in the various States bear out the same general result, although these statistics are not very valuable, owing to its being undetermined in each case whether the wages include rations or not. In three States, namely, Sonora, Tabasco, and Morelos, the maximum wages of peons are given at \$1; in Yucatan, Colima, and Michoacan at 75 cents; in Chihuahua at 62 cents, and in eight other States at 50 cents; in the Federal District at 40 cents; in three States at 37 cents, in one at 31 cents, and in four States, Aguas Calientes, Tamaulipas, Guanajuato and San Luis Potosi, at 25 cents. The wages of pulque hands are low on the whole, owing to the fact that the maguey, which produces this beverage, is raised on the high plateau where wages are low. In most of the States where it is raised the wages are about the same as those paid to peons, although in some cases they fall somewhat below and in others they rise somewhat above that of peons. Wages of shepherds, on the other hand, are usually below those paid to the peon, which is owing to the nature of the work. If the arithmetical mean between minimum and maximum wages be taken it will be found that in Campeche, Mexico, Hidalgo, Michoacan, Tabasco, Coahuila, Colima, Puebla, Yucatan, and San Luis Potosi the wages range somewhat higher for ordinary peons than for shepherds, although in three States the exact reverse is observable. Wages of herders, on the other hand, usually appear to be higher than those of peons, which is, of course, more especially true of overseers and major-domos. Even the wages of the latter, however, are small, the minimum wages amounting in only three States to \$1 per day silver, though in only five States are the maximum wages less than \$1.

The lowness of wages, even at the present time, in certain parts of the central plateau is shown by the official reports of the department of public promotion (*Fomento*) on agriculture, mining, and manufacturing. (*a*) Thus in the State of Zacatecas the wages on a number of plantations amounted to only 18 cents silver for men and to only 9 cents for boys per day. As a rule the administrators received from \$15 a month to \$300 a year, while the stewards or major-domos received \$8 per month. On one *hacienda* in the same State the wages of peons ranged from 15 to 18 cents for men and from 5 to 9 cents for boys, while on another they fluctuated between 12 and 18 cents for men and between 3 and 9 cents for boys. Even lower wages are to be found on certain other plantations. In the pages which follow the normal wages current in various States of the country are given in connection with the condition of agriculture in those regions.

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*a* Boletín de Agricultura, Minería é Industrias.



If we take the arithmetical mean of the wages of peons of the different States the minimum wages will average 1.96 reals (of  $12\frac{1}{2}$  cents silver each) and the maximum 4.24 reals or from  $24\frac{1}{2}$  to 53 cents per day. The arithmetical mean, again, of these two averages will amount to 3.1 reals or to almost 39 cents. This very rough figure is probably greater than the average wages with rations, and perhaps somewhat less than the average wages without rations. Roughly speaking, the wages appear to be about one-third of those of farm laborers in the northern part of the United States, assuming the Mexican dollar and the American dollar to be equal, or about one-sixth of the wages of farm labor in the Northern States if we put both wages upon a gold standard. This result is, of course, not exact, but it shows roughly the very wide discrepancy between wages paid in Mexico and in the United States.

There are no statistics of the hours of labor in Mexico. The work-day varies in the different parts of the country, and the length of the day depends on the character of the work and the special exigencies of the season. This, as well as other conditions of labor, is of course largely determined by the custom of the place, but differences exist between different ranches or plantations located within the same district. In the past there were frequent cases of unduly long hours and overwork, against which the peon was less able to defend himself as he was so frequently indebted to his master. It is the general testimony that at the present time the tendency, on the better-managed plantations at least, is toward a lessening of the hours of labor, but, although this appears probable, no statistical proof can be adduced in support of the assertion.

The agricultural laborers are to a large extent pure Indians or Indians with a feeble admixture of European blood. They are, for the greater part, illiterate, ambitionless, and passive, if not opposed, as a general rule, toward the introduction of new machinery or to progress of any kind. Their relation to their employer differs in various parts of the country and on various plantations, and in many places it is more like the conditions existing on the plantations in the southern part of the United States before the war than like the position of farm hands in the Northern States at the present time. The conditions, however, appear to be improving; schools are being established and agricultural machinery introduced, and the extension of railroads gives to the peon the advantage of legal redress in case of unwarranted aggression. The evils of absentee ownership, however, can hardly be said to be completely done away with.

#### AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN TROPICAL MEXICO.

The wages of agricultural labor in the tropical portions of Mexico show merely one phase of the situation, and when compared with wages on the plateau give perhaps a somewhat too flattering view of



actual conditions. The conditions existing in the States of Oaxaca, Vera Cruz, Tabasco, Yucatan, and Chiapas have been the subject of much adverse criticism and considerable invective, and have been defended quite as vigorously. The purpose of the present paper is not, however, to pass judgment upon these conditions, but to give as true an account of their nature as can be obtained from the material at hand.

In the tropical portions of Mexico land is extraordinarily fertile, and labor is both scarce and ineffective. As in all other hot countries, the inhabitant of tropical Mexico is able to subsist with very little exertion, and his requirements in the way of food, clothing, and shelter cost but little labor. The people of the uplands, moreover, prefer the higher altitudes and do not care to live permanently in the low hot lands, which they consider unhealthy. The large market for tropical productions, however, causes the planter to feel the constant need of labor, and the character of the crops renders it imperative that this labor should not only be sufficiently abundant, but reliable and more or less permanent. In consequence of these conditions and of the improvidence and very low standard of life of the peons, there has grown up in tropical America a system of more or less compulsory labor, existing side by side with a freer system of labor. In a great many of the States where tropical products are raised the native residents are employed under a contract which is compulsory on their part, owing to their being in debt to the planter, while at the same time additional laborers imported from a distance are working under freer, if not more favorable, conditions. The nature of the forced labor and the exact amount of compulsion used depends upon the legal status of the contracted labor in the various States and upon the rigor or leniency with which the laws are enforced.

The system of enforced labor is carried out to its logical sequence in the sisal-grass plantations of Yucatan. There on each large plantation is to be found a body of peons, called *criados* or *sirvientes* (servants), who, with their families, live on the plantations, and in many cases have been born there. These *criados* are bound to the soil by indebtedness, for although a mere contract to perform certain services does not impose specific performance, it is held in Yucatan that where an advance payment has been made either the repayment of the money or, in default thereof, the specific performance may be exacted.

This theory works itself out in the following manner: Upon reaching early manhood, at 18 or 20, the young Yucatecan, in order to be enabled to marry, borrows from \$100 to \$200 from his patron. It is not expected that he will ever repay this debt, and no effort is made either to repay or reduce it. On the contrary, it is usually increased from time to time through occasional misfortunes which befall the peon or his family, or through additional advances made by the



planter. The amount of the debt thus represents the cost of an emancipation, which is not desired or attempted, especially as it may represent the gross wages of several years. The peons on the sisal-grass plantations receive, as a rule, about 50 cents a day and rations worth perhaps 25 cents a day, together with a certain amount of land, which they may till on their free days. They also receive, as a rule, medicine and medical attendance in case of illness and clothing amounting to about 15 yards of some common cotton cloth for each adult member of the family. In the large plantations the pay is usually by the day, but in the smaller and, on the whole, less profitable, *haciendas* the work is usually by task or *tarea*, the task being calculated on a reasonable amount of work per day. On the whole, the conditions of labor on the small plantations are not as favorable as on the large ones. The tasks are frequently graduated in such a manner that the remuneration increases more than proportionately with the work done, without, however, having any very decided effect in stimulating the peon to increased activity.

The system of labor enforced by indebtedness seems to work in Yucatan to the satisfaction of the planter. The peon is compelled to work unless he is able to pay off his constantly increasing debt, and any attempt at flight or evasion is followed by penal retribution. The peon rarely, if ever, achieves independence, and a transference of a workman from one employer to another is only effected by means of the new employer paying to the former one the amount of the debt contracted. The system thus resembles slavery, not only in the compulsion under which the peon works, but in the large initial expense required of the planter when making his first investment in labor.

Side by side with this development of unfree home labor there exists the custom of importing labor for short periods from other parts of the country. The development of the sisal-grass industry was so rapid, especially during the war with Spain and the insurrection in the Philippines, that the resident supply of labor was unequal to the demand, and workmen were imported from other States. The foreign laborers, called *huastecos*, occasionally go to Yucatan of their own accord, but are more frequently taken there by agents, who oversee them and receive payment equal to 6 per cent of their wages. The diversion of labor in Yucatan from all other crops to sisal grass has caused the price of corn to increase, with the result that the money wages of *huastecos* who are obliged to find themselves have increased from 75 cents to \$1 a day, although the former rate of pay is also found in the peninsula.

The foreign laborers working in Yucatan are recruited very largely in the northern part of the State of Vera Cruz, but are obtained also from other States. That there is not entire satisfaction among the



*huastecos* with the conditions under which they work in that State is evidenced by the fact that on November 15, 1899, the legislature of the State of Aguas Calientes passed a law (No. 988) taxing all agents who employed laborers for work outside the State the sum of \$10 per man so employed and \$5 for every member of his family taken with him, the tax to be doubled in case the laborer was taken to a foreign country, the money to be paid to the municipal treasuries. Provision was made in the law for the regulation of the traffic, and violation was to be punished by a fine of from \$100 to \$500, or, in default thereof, by imprisonment. The tax was to be remitted when, in the judgment of the governor of the State of Aguas Calientes, the laborers were intended for a work of public utility.

This decree was founded upon the idea that in Yucatan great harshness was used toward the men imported. This was denied by *El Eco de Comercio*, of Merida (Yucatan), in an article headed "Un decreto inoportuno," as well as by the *Economista Mexicano* (March 24, 1900). The latter journal stated that the Aguas Calientes law was obviously unconstitutional and cited various cases in which employees from other States were alleged to have been more than satisfied with their treatment in Yucatan.

In the State of Tabasco the conditions of forced labor are somewhat different and the difficulty of the labor problem, especially from the point of view of the planter, is exceedingly aggravated. In Tabasco the law does not permit the same remedy as in Yucatan, namely, the enforcement of the specific performance of a contract upon which an advance payment has been made, but this drawback is more apparent than real, since the governmental authority is vested in the hands of the landowning planting classes, and the obligation of contracted peons to work for the planters is virtually enforced.<sup>(a)</sup>

The land in Tabasco is wonderfully fertile, but only a small part is tilled, owing to the inadequate labor supply. Land is also very cheap, so that it is quite possible for a provident workman to obtain it if he does not prefer to enslave himself by becoming indebted.

The tobacco plantations of Tabasco are extremely large and employ great numbers of workmen. Of these, a small number live on the estate, where they are given land and 50 cents a day, without rations. For the use of the corn lands which they cultivate they are supposed to return 10 per cent of the crop. There are also workmen from other parts of Mexico, usually from the plateau, who work from September

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<sup>a</sup>This statement is made on the authority of Prof. Dr. Karl Kaerger, *Landwirtschaft und Kolonien im Spanischen Amerika*. Leipzig (Dunker and Humboldt), 1901. This book is a reproduction of the reports of Dr. Kaerger to his Government upon the conditions of agriculture, and appears, upon the whole, to give as accurate accounts of labor conditions in certain portions of tropical Mexico as are to be found anywhere. For agricultural labor conditions in tropical Mexico these reports have been extensively drawn upon.



until the end of February and receive from 37½ to 50 cents a day, silver, and rations, which cost from 18 to 22 cents. These workmen are virtually free, but receive, in the plantations near San Andrés Tuxtla, an advance of about \$20 before commencing work and of \$6 to defray the expenses of their trip. There are also employed free peons from the town, who receive from 50 to 62½ cents a day, silver, without rations.

The labor problem in Tabasco is more particularly acute, owing to the great lack of laborers, and for this reason only a small portion of the land can be cultivated. The planter in that region constantly complains of the lack of labor, especially of suitable labor, and the present arrangements seem to be satisfactory to neither party. The system works itself out in such a manner that the peon, once indebted, is frequently at the mercy of an unscrupulous planter, while, at the same time, the planter may incur heavy loss through the thieving propensities or the evasion of his laborers. The problem seems to be one of potential tyranny, tempered by the possibility of flight, and at the same time of insufficient labor insufficiently paid.

The labor problem in Tabasco has been seriously considered by the agricultural congresses of the State. The congress which met in 1900, for example, came to the conclusion that there was a great scarcity of labor arising from the rapid development which had taken place in agriculture, and that the present system of serfdom should be changed or done away with by some expedient which would not threaten danger to the State's agriculture. In order to improve the actual condition of the labor contract as it exists to-day, and to protect the peon in his rights, the proprietors of rural estates were advised to keep a record of the liquidation of the accounts of indebted servants in the books of the plantation, to give to each servant a small book showing the resulting balance of his debt, and to pay to each peon the wages which he should have according to contract, to accord to him, moreover, a premium of 25 per cent of his daily wages, which premium, however, should not be paid in cash, but be devoted to the settlement of his debt, and to be paid only for full years and not for fractions thereof. The peon, moreover, should be entitled to devote such other portion of his wages as he desired to the repayment of his indebtedness, and all such sums paid should be recorded by the proprietor in the booklet of the peon.

It was also urged by the agricultural congress of Tabasco that the proprietors or planters who would introduce this system on their estates should agree to observe its regulations by inscribing their names in the register kept by the chamber of agriculture, which was to be published by the periodical of that chamber, or by the independent or official press of the State. It was also urged that some public authority



should intervene in the liquidation of the accounts of the indebted peons, legalizing the booklets which were presented. (a) The congress also passed resolutions upon the subject of immigration, which subject is treated in another portion of this paper.

These resolutions were evidently made in the interest of the peons, who, by their ignorance and illiteracy, are at the mercy of the more unscrupulous planters.

In the hot lands of the State of Vera Cruz somewhat similar conditions prevail as in other portions of tropical Mexico, but in this case the larger population renders wages somewhat smaller than on the isthmus, in Yucatan, or in Tabasco. According to the "Report on the condition of the agricultural laborers in the State of Vera Cruz," made in 1887 by the English consul, (b) the state of agriculture at that time was not flourishing. The number of agricultural laborers was estimated at 100,000, of which 15,000 were unmarried men and lads, 60,000 married men, 7,000 widowers, and 18,000 women and girls. Here, as elsewhere, in agriculture, the Indian blood predominates, 42 per cent being pure-blooded aboriginal Indians and 58 per cent Indo-Mexicans, with a greater or less percentage of Indian blood. Statistics of wages were obtained from 105 different labor centers, and the returns, without food, were as follows: In 5 centers near the city of Vera Cruz the wages were  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to 5 reals (56 to 63 cents silver); of the others, 39 centers paid 3 reals (38 cents), 26 paid  $2\frac{1}{2}$  reals (31 cents), 22 paid 2 reals (25 cents), 9 paid 4 reals (50 cents), 2 paid  $3\frac{1}{2}$  reals (44 cents), and 2 paid  $1\frac{1}{2}$  reals (19 cents). The average pay for the whole State thus appears to have been a trifle less than 3 reals (38 cents), or, according to the calculation of the English consul,  $13\frac{1}{2}$ d. (27 cents) per workman. The cost of food was about 1 real ( $12\frac{1}{2}$  cents), which is set down as 5d. (10 cents), leaving only about  $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. (17 cents) to the family for hut and clothing. Of course, at that time, as at present, the demands of the laborer in the hot country were not great, since no fuel was required for warmth and what was needed for cooking was obtained by the Indians themselves, while the native tallow candle sufficed for occasional lighting. The peon, then, as now, lived in a hut "little better than a pigsty and not much larger," and consumed little else in manufactured products than a few yards of cotton cloth.

Despite the large population of Vera Cruz, there have always been complaints about the scarcity of labor. There, as elsewhere, however, the problem seems to be as much one of adjustment and improvement of labor as an increase in the number of laborers. According to a report of the British consul in 1894, (c) the Indian labor was of a low class and

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a See resolutions of the Tabascan Agricultural Congress (*Congreso Agrícola de Tabasco*). *El Economista Mexicano*, February 23, 1901.

b British Foreign Office, Miscellaneous Series No. 51, 1887.

c British Foreign Office, Annual Series No. 1342, 1894.



“adverse to the employment of other methods of cultivation than those to which it is accustomed.” The wages by this time, 1894, had risen somewhat, to an average of from 25 to 63 cents silver, but there was little immigration. The peons worked as little as possible. The natives of the interior refused to be attracted in large numbers to the coast, where they did not thrive, and the system of indebtedness was rendered almost necessary. In a later report, made in 1895,<sup>(a)</sup> the labor problem was still declared to be unsolved and native labor arraigned as scarce, unstable, and of low quality. Desertions of contracted laborers were frequent, and while free labor was of better quality and obtained higher wages, it was difficult to procure.

In the report made in November, 1900, on the “Trade and commerce of Vera Cruz,”<sup>(b)</sup> it was declared that, despite the low wages paid in silver, the results of native labor were so poor as to be dear even at that price. Labor was very scarce; there was not sufficient supply for the growing demand and “no legal redress for breach of contract nor means to enforce the fulfillment of contracts.” The importation of Chinese had not been successful, as they could not be legally controlled as the natives were, and, upon the whole, the British representative came to the conclusion that the lack of labor in the tropical coast lands of Vera Cruz was particularly acute. A recent experiment of importing Italian labor for the construction of the Vera Cruz and Pacific Railway was unsuccessful, owing to the discontent and evasion of the contracted laborers.

It may be broadly stated that, taking tropical Mexico by and large, neither to the employers nor to the employees are the conditions of labor entirely satisfactory. The system of indebtedness and practical serfdom is not without its bad effects upon labor; it involves the planter also in great risk and large expenditure. The system results in the destruction of any desire on the part of the peon to be independent or to think for himself, and seems to lead to improvidence of all sorts. The debt incurred by the planter is frequently very large and may probably be many times in excess of the value of his land. It also necessitates a complicated and expensive system of labor agents and assistants to obtain new contract laborers, to prevent their flight, and to return them in the event of their running away.

As a general rule, the labor cost to the planter in tropical Mexico is considerably greater than the money wages received by the peons. This cost includes the price or labor paid for the rations, the cost of obtaining the workingmen or of bringing them back in case of flight, together with the interest on the money advanced in loans and the occasional loss of the capital so advanced, as a result of the death or successful flight of the debtor.

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<sup>a</sup> British Foreign Office, Annual Series No. 1509, 1895.

<sup>b</sup> British Foreign Office, Annual Series No. 2539, 1900.



The low wages, however, appear to be largely the result of the ignorance and improvidence of the natives, and it is somewhat questionable whether higher daily wages would permanently benefit the peon, unless at the same time his standard of life rose. The experience of railroad companies and other employers of labor in Mexico has been that higher daily wages increase idleness, and that, if the wages for a day's work be doubled, the number of working days will be halved. It is also a fact confirmed by the experience and observation of many employers that the amount of labor performed bears no direct relation to the wages, and that even where work is done by the task instead of by the day the promise of additional remuneration will seldom result in an increased output.

Another feature of the labor situation in Mexico, and above all, in tropical Mexico, which proves the inertness and ignorance of the laboring population, is the tenacity with which conventional rates of wages and conventional methods of payment are adhered to. The amount of land or the amount of cotton cloth given to the workman remains constantly the same for long periods, and the amount of work which makes up a day's task remains the same, although the conditions themselves may have changed. The depreciation of the currency appears to have little effect upon the rate of wages of the agricultural population, although, in view of the fact that the articles consumed by the workmen are so few and so exclusively of home production, the effect of such a depreciation upon prices may perhaps be exaggerated. The quiescence and inertia of the population, in view of the depreciated currency, may be witnessed, however, in the district of Soconusco, in the State of Chiapas, where wages both of the free and of the indebted laborers are paid in Guatemalan currency called *cachuco*, which is about 25 per cent less in value than the Mexican silver.

In the same district the indebted workmen are obliged to buy from their wages, which usually amount to 50 cents Guatemalan, equal to about 19 cents gold, their food and that of their family. This food, however, is sold at entirely traditional prices, and while considerable profit, averaging from 50 to 100 per cent, is made upon certain articles such as beans and meat, the chief article of consumption, corn, is always sold at a slight, or occasionally even at a very considerable, loss to the plantation. Another proof of the conventional character of the labor contract is the fact that small sums of money must be paid to the peon at each fortnightly or monthly settlement day, even though the payment is in excess of actual wages. As a rule the peons appear to desire no other arrangement than that which is actually in force, and while they occasionally evade the contract by flight, it is only for the purpose of incurring another considerable debt which will again place them in the position from which they sought to escape. The labor problem in tropical Mexico is more likely to find its solution on



the Isthmus than in any other place, owing to the settlement in that place of American planters with ample capital and considerable initiative. The temporary work of preparing the land for cultivation, however, has been performed through conventions with contractors of labor, on an agreement for the payment of a stated sum per acre prepared for planting.

#### AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN TEMPERATE MEXICO.

In the temperate parts of Mexico the question of agricultural labor, from the point of view of the employer, is not nearly so difficult as in the more tropical portions of the country. The population in the temperate regions, as before stated, is considerably denser and wages are lower. The chief advantage, however, from the point of view of the employer, is to be found not so much in the cheapness of labor as in its greater steadiness and reliability.

The clearest idea of the state of labor on the Mexican plantations situated in the temperate climate is to be found on the large haciendas where corn is raised. The production of grain is carried on by small farmers to a certain extent, but it is chiefly raised on large plantations, which are usually owned by absentee Mexican or Spanish proprietors and operated by an administrator. The corn is raised, however, not so much by employing farm laborers as by letting out certain portions of the land to be worked on the metayer system. On these plantations a large proportion of the hands live on the haciendas in huts assigned to them. They are usually paid from 25 to 37 cents Mexican currency per day or per task, which is calculated on the basis of a day's work. They are attached to the soil either by an advance of money, by an assignment of land, or by an offer of joint cultivation on the metayer system.

In the States of Jalisco and Guanajuato, where, in the year 1898, 9,777,484 hectoliters (27,745,566 bushels) or almost one-fourth of the total corn in the country was raised, the system of cultivation is chiefly on the metayer contract based on the indebtedness of the peon. A cultivator receives from a planter a portion of land, as well as seed, oxen, necessary implements, and a certain advance in corn, amounting to about  $7\frac{1}{2}$  bushels per yoke of oxen. This seed is not returned until after the harvesting of the crop, when it is paid for either in money or kind. The cultivator performs all the work of the farm excepting that of harvesting, which is divided between him and the planter, or, where it is performed entirely by the employees of the latter, one-half of the expense is charged to the cultivator. Sometimes this charge is a fixed conventional sum and not the actual cost of the work or in definite proportion thereto.

The conditions described above may be considered as typical for the

States, although in some cases, such as that mentioned by Kaerger, (a) the proportion received by the cultivator is only 40 per cent, and the general conditions more onerous.

The same form of contract exists, with slight changes, for the cultivation of beans, though in this case no advance is made excepting for seed. The money wages of such farm hands in the States of Puebla and Mexico as are indebted are less than those who are free. The former receive 18 cents in the vicinity of Toluca, in the State of Mexico, instead of 25 cents paid to free workmen, while in Puebla, where wages are higher, owing to the demand for laborers in the cotton and other factories, the remuneration of the resident workers (called *acasi-lados*) average about 25 cents, while those of the free workmen range between 37 and 50 cents. The resident workers sometimes receive countervailing advantages—as in the neighborhood of Toluca, for instance, a hut, fuel, the use of a piece of land and that of oxen and implements.

In some cases, however, no such advantage is granted, and on some plantations the peon who can not resist aggression, owing to the fact of his being indebted, is obliged to buy from his landlord the corn which he consumes at a fixed price of \$4 per *fanega*, or about \$1.56 Mexican currency per bushel. In such cases as the latter, the farm hand appears to be absolutely at the mercy of the *hacendado*, or planter, who, by means of low wages and high charges for food, is able to constantly increase the indebtedness of the peon, while giving him barely sufficient food to keep him alive. It is not known to what extent the power of the planter is thus abused, but the conditions are such as to render a most intolerable cruelty, at least occasionally, possible.

### MINING LABOR.

The early history of Mexican labor under the Spaniards was closely associated with the work in the mines, and no one can truly appreciate the history of the Indians of Mexico without taking into account the metal hunger of the Spaniards. During the middle ages the supply of silver in western Europe had been diminishing, and at the beginning of the era of the conquest of America the demand for silver had reached an unexampled intensity. The prevailing trade theory of the times, moreover, laid a great and perhaps not entirely unjustifiable stress upon the importance of obtaining specie, while the ease of transporting the metal was an added reason for an extension of mining. Finally, it seems probable that the industry of mining, which, with its high chances and occasionally enormous returns, has always attracted adventurers, appealed with unexampled force to the imaginative conquerors.

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a Landwirtschaft und Kolonization, etc., quoted on page 44.



Be that as it may, the immediate result of the conquest was a transference of a vast body of labor from agriculture to mining, and, in a great measure, a removal of Indians from the hot lowlands and the temperate mountain slopes to the colder lands of the plateau.

Unlike in Peru, where the mines were chiefly found near the region of perpetual snow, the principal Mexican mines known to the Spaniards were on the great central table-land at an elevation of from 5,600 to 6,600 feet. The region of the mines was thus habitable, but it would have been difficult to obtain laborers of their own accord, and recourse was necessarily had to force. Accordingly, the Indians were taken from their farms and obliged to work in the mines, where the excessive labor under the most trying conditions and with insufficient food and sleep caused a tremendously high death rate. To this was added the effect of the new employment and of the colder climate upon the Indians, whose "flexibility of organization" was probably less than that of the European race. In Peru, where the mines were situated at a greater altitude, this policy resulted in a depopulation of vast sections of the country and the survival of the policy, although with no great output of the mines. In Mexico, on the other hand, there grew up towns and villages in the fertile lands about the mines, the severity of the "*mita*" was lessened, and the mines became established and prospered on the foundation of free and well-paid labor.<sup>(a)</sup>

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the conditions of labor had vastly improved in Mexican mines and the miners formed a body of free, highly remunerated laborers. But even then the conditions under which they worked were extraordinarily hard, owing to the terrible heat and the bad ventilation of the mines, as well as the onerous and exacting nature of the labor. At that time the *tenateros*, or Indians and half-breeds who carry minerals on their back, frequently remained "continuously loaded for six hours with a weight of from 225 to 350 pounds, and constantly exposed to a very high temperature, ascending eight or ten times successively, without intermission, stairs of 1,800 steps." Yet, despite their very excessive work, the men appeared to do well, and, according to Humboldt, the mortality among the miners was not much greater than among other classes. This is no doubt to

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<sup>a</sup> There is some conflict of opinion among authorities as to the exact knowledge possessed by the ancient Mexicans of the art of mining. Prescott goes so far as to say that they opened extensive galleries into veins wrought in the solid rock, and that the early Spanish miners obtained indications from traces of their labor. On the other hand, other authorities, basing their views on the language of Bernal Diaz, Sahagun, and other contemporaries of the conquerors, believe that they obtained their metals entirely by gathering detached masses found on the surface of the ground or in river beds. At all events, the small amount of silver obtained as booty by the conquerors and the small necessity for silver by the Indians show rather conclusively that if there were subterranean mining it was on a very small scale.



be partly attributed to the fact that they did not, as a rule, work many days in a week. The *tenateros* found it dangerous to work more than three days a week, while in the case of *barrenadores*, or men who blew up the rock with powder, it was discovered that the great majority who labored the whole week died before attaining the age of 35. Even with the reduced working week, however, it was found expedient not to spend more than five or six years at this dangerous and exacting employment, but to change at the end of that period. The terrible severity of labor conditions at the close of the Spanish régime, when labor was free, may give some idea, however, of the murderous exploitation of the enslaved natives in the earlier decades of the conquest.

There is perhaps another reason to assign for the fair health of the miners under the terrible conditions prevailing until recent times. The high wages no doubt extracted the most sturdy and vigorous of the population. Humboldt speaks of the "robust and laborious men" employed, and despite a low run of ore and a most wasteful and unscientific exploitation, the body of ore in many of the mines was so enormous as to permit the payment of wages sufficient to attract the most muscular and hardy men. There were, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, from 5,000 to 6,000 persons employed in the amalgamation of the minerals and in the preparatory labor, but, although a great many of these spent their lives in walking barefooted over the brayed metal, mixed with muriate of soda, sulphate of iron, and oxide of mercury, the universal testimony of the resident physicians was to the effect that they were peculiarly exempt from the nervous affections that might naturally have accompanied the absorption of oxide of mercury. Children were at that time and are at present employed at this dangerous labor.

During the nineteenth century, and notably during the past generation, the mining industry in Mexico has advanced at a very rapid rate. The immense mineral resources of this country, in which are found gold, silver, lead, sulphur, mercury, copper, iron, antimony, tin, manganese, zinc, and other minerals, were largely exploited under the colonial régime, but, although there was a falling off in the mining industry during the revolutionary epoch and the troubled years which immediately followed it, there has been a very rapid extension in the industry since that period. The building of railroads has permitted the opening of mines which were inaccessible in earlier days, or which were not sufficiently rich to permit of exploitation where the ore had to be carried upon the backs of burros. The influx of American and other foreign capital has also contributed to this result, and at the present time the mining industry of Mexico is very rapidly increasing and shows every promise of becoming greater in the future.



The immediate result of this extension of mining has been the growth of an enlarged demand for mining labor. Although the mines were developed to a large extent during the time of the Spanish régime, the number of persons engaged in the industry at present is from two and one-half to three times as great as that employed at the beginning of the century. At that time there were engaged in all subterranean operations, including *barrenadores*, *faeneros*, *tenateros*, and *barreteros* from 28,000 to 30,000 persons, or only five persons per thousand of the population. If to these figures we add the 5,000 or 6,000 persons employed in the amalgamation of the metals and in the preparatory work, admitting these amended figures to be correct, it would seem that the demands made upon the forces of the laboring population had increased more rapidly than the population itself, since the number of persons employed in the mines was 89,072 in 1898 and 106,536 in 1899, while those engaged in the reduction of metals numbered 24,811 in 1898 and 29,192 in 1899. Thus, while the population has doubled, the number of miners has more than trebled, and where formerly one-half of 1 per cent of the population was engaged in mining, that proportion has now risen to three-fourths of 1 per cent. The following table shows by States the number of persons employed in the mines in the year 1899 together with the weight and value of metal extracted:

MEN, WOMEN, AND CHILDREN EMPLOYED IN MINES IN 1899, WITH WEIGHT AND VALUE OF METAL EXTRACTED, BY STATES.

State.	Number employed.				Weight of metal (pounds).	Value of metal (Mexican).
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.		
Aguas Calientes .....	684	.....	78	762	10,869,368	\$552,192
Lower California .....	2,513	.....	40	2,553	588,264,548	1,664,952
Coahuila .....	7,121	115	125	7,361	458,195,906	5,306,539
Chiapas .....	260	.....	30	290	55,115,510	193,000
Chihuahua .....	8,805	38	849	9,692	867,808,590	22,374,294
Durango .....	7,689	5	616	8,310	570,463,883	13,856,753
Guanajuato .....	11,278	442	166	11,886	297,070,547	3,835,541
Guerrero .....	3,247	15	143	3,405	68,265,933	350,142
Hidalgo .....	9,221	92	185	9,498	311,531,267	7,328,110
Jalisco .....	2,197	.....	162	2,359	119,932,634	2,880,345
Mexico .....	1,470	30	257	1,757	71,734,860	1,758,765
Michoacan .....	2,102	133	206	2,441	42,848,466	505,957
Morelos .....	100	.....	20	120	15,873,284	144,000
Nuevo Leon .....	8,731	172	255	9,158	128,453,089	1,053,224
Oaxaca .....	2,304	38	183	2,525	35,187,346	740,566
Puebla .....	901	19	29	949	24,444,827	902,840
Queretaro .....	578	.....	21	599	9,275,611	85,799
San Luis Potosi .....	3,441	45	429	3,915	188,353,892	4,558,568
Sinaloa .....	4,003	61	201	4,265	436,882,140	5,559,266
Sonora .....	5,014	78	427	5,519	516,586,963	8,253,932
Tamaulipas .....	185	.....	.....	185	14,230,833	64,775
Tepic .....	1,061	5	95	1,161	27,207,805	660,801
Vera Cruz .....	8	.....	.....	8	55,116	2,000
Zacatecas .....	16,483	.....	1,335	17,818	353,451,047	7,409,545
Total .....	99,396	1,288	5,552	106,536	55,212,103,466	589,044,906

*a* In 1898, 5,675,159.621; in 1897, 3,802,220,525 pounds.

*b* In 1898, \$65,129,840; in 1897, \$53,755,695.

In the following table the statistics are given of men, women, and children employed in Mexican smelters and reduction works during the year 1899:

MEN, WOMEN, AND CHILDREN EMPLOYED IN SMELTERS AND REDUCTION WORKS IN 1899, BY STATES.

State.	Men.	Wom-en.	Chil-dren.	Total.	State.	Men.	Wom-en.	Chil-dren.	Total.
Aguas Calientes.	864	.....	10	874	Nuevo Leon....	1,406	.....	.....	1,406
Lower California	687	.....	.....	687	Oaxaca.....	917	2	45	964
Coahuila.....	58	.....	.....	58	Puebla.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chiapas.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Queretaro.....	452	.....	.....	452
Chihuahua.....	3,667	15	159	3,841	San Luis Potosi.	987	.....	44	1,031
Durango.....	1,621	.....	83	1,704	Sinaloa.....	1,517	.....	30	1,547
Guanajuato.....	2,412	.....	58	2,470	Sonora.....	1,146	12	71	1,229
Guerrero.....	1,513	.....	153	1,666	Tamaulipas....	350	.....	.....	350
Hidalgo.....	3,673	15	145	3,833	Tepic.....	299	2	35	336
Jalisco.....	1,076	.....	126	1,202	Vera Cruz.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mexico.....	976	30	85	1,091	Zacatecas.....	4,032	.....	285	4,317
Michoacan.....	94	.....	5	99					
Morelos.....	30	.....	5	35	Total.....	27,777	76	1,339	29,192

In Mexico miners have always been paid considerably more than agricultural laborers. Thus, in the beginning of the nineteenth century, according to the testimony of Humboldt, the Mexican miner received from 25 to 30 francs (\$4.82½ to \$5.79) per week of six days, while the wages of farm laborers at that time amounted to only 7 francs 16 sous (\$1.50½) on the central table-land, and 9 francs 12 sous (\$1.85½) near the coast. Thus, while the daily wages of the farm laborers, counting only six days per week, amounted to but 25 cents on the plateau and to 31 cents on the coast, that of the miner averaged from 80 to 96½ cents per day. The miners occupied in transporting the minerals in the mines (*tenateros and faeneros*) frequently gained as much as 6 francs (\$1.16) per day of six hours; in fact, according to the judgment of Humboldt, the Mexican miner was, at that time, "the best paid of all miners."

Since independence, conditions of mining labor have fluctuated greatly, but on the whole it would appear that the wages of the employees have been less during the period of independence than they were at the close of the Spanish régime. When measured in gold, the same may be said of the wages to-day. According to an official report (*a*) there were employed in 1881 in the district of Guanajuato, State of Guanajuato, from 7,000 to 8,000 men and 500 women, who actually received \$2,000,000 a year, or, on the assumption of 8,000 employees, a payment of \$250 per person. According to this report, wages of miners in several mines in the State of Zacatecas were placed at \$1.50, while in Guanajuato wages were about 75 cents for the drillers and pickmen; 50 cents for the ore carriers; from 75 cents to \$1.50 for smiths; and 37 cents for the women employed. The wages

*a* Anales del Ministerio de Fomento de la República Mexicana. Año de 1881. Tomo V. Mexico, 1881.



since this period, according to later reports, appear to have risen considerably, although they vary according to the density of the population. Thus, in the Santa Juliana mine of the Sabinal Mining and Smelting Company, Sabinal district, State of Chihuahua, the superintendent receives \$200 per month; the *pobladores* receive \$2 per day; the *barreteros* \$1.50, while the ordinary peons receive \$1.25. In the reduction works the superintendent receives \$10 per day, the machinists \$3, and the peons \$1.50 per day. (a) According to another report upon the wages of miners in the various States the wages appear to fluctuate greatly in the various States. Thus the minimum wages of peons are placed at 18 cents in Guanajuato; 25 cents in Hidalgo, Mexico, Oaxaca, and Queretaro; 37 cents in Durango, Michoacan, and Zacatecas; 45 cents in Sonora, and 50 cents in Nuevo Leon, while in Chihuahua the minimum wages are \$1 and the maximum \$1.50.

Following is a table showing the daily wages of miners, by States:

DAILY WAGES OF MINERS, BY STATES.

State.	Ore breakers.	Timbermen.	Watchmen.	Peons.
Coahuila .....	\$0.75	\$0.75	\$0.75-\$1.00	\$0.50-\$0.75
Chihuahua .....	1.50	\$1.00- 1.50	1.00- 1.50	1.00- 1.50
Durango .....	\$0.50- 1.50	.40- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00
Guanajuato .....	.18- .50	.50	.....	.18- .37
Guerrero .....	.37	.37	.37- .50	.37
Hidalgo .....	.31- .75	.31- .75	.50- 1.00	.25- .50
Michoacan .....	.50- 1.00	.37- .75	.25- .75	.37- .75
Mexico .....	.50- .75	.50	.50	.25- .50
Nuevo Leon .....	.50- 1.00	.75- 1.00	.75- 1.00	.50- .75
Oaxaca .....	.25- .75	.25- .50	.25- .31	.25- .50
Queretaro .....	.50	.....	.....	.25- .37
San Luis Potosi .....	.25- .66	.....	.66	.25- .50
Sonora .....	1.00- 2.00	1.20	1.00- 2.00	.45- 2.00
Zacatecas .....	.50- 1.75	.50- 1.75	.37- .72	.37- .50

State.	Quicksilver miners.	Drillers and pickmen.	Furnacemen (horneros).	Trowel workers.
Coahuila .....	.....	\$0.75-\$1.00	\$0.75	\$0.75-\$1.00
Chihuahua .....	\$2.00-\$3.00	.51- 2.50	1.50	1.50- 2.00
Durango .....	1.00- 2.00	.40- 1.50	\$0.75- 1.00	1.00- 2.50
Guanajuato .....	.....	.50	.....	.50
Guerrero .....	.....	.50- .75	.37	.50
Hidalgo .....	.....	.31- 1.00	.....	.31- 1.00
Michoacan .....	.50- 1.00	.50- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.50- 1.18
Mexico .....	2.00- 3.00	.50- .75	1.00	1.00
Nuevo Leon .....	1.00- 2.00	.66- 1.00	.75- 1.00	.75- 1.00
Oaxaca .....	1.75	.25- 1.00	.50	.75- 1.00
Queretaro .....	.....	.50- 1.00	.....	.50
San Luis Potosi .....	.....	1.00- 1.60	.50	1.00
Sonora .....	1.00- 3.00	.45- 1.00	1.00- 2.00	.75- 2.00
Zacatecas .....	1.00- 3.00	.70- 1.00	.70- 1.50	.66- 1.20

It may be seen from these wages that on the whole the peons employed in mining receive somewhat larger remuneration than those devoted to agriculture, although this difference is not very great. In mining also, as in agriculture, the wages are greater as the population becomes less dense, being much higher in Coahuila and Chihuahua than



in the southern part of the plateau, owing first to the sparseness of population and secondly to the recent rapid development of mining in these regions through the incoming of American capital. The lowest wages are in Guanajuato, for several centuries the best and richest mining region in the country, and perhaps the greatest silver region in the world, where the present population appears to be in excess of the demands for labor. The effect of the Tropics is less clearly seen, as most of the mining States are on the central plateau. The maximum wages of peons show the same tendency as the minimum wages, with regard to the effect of location and density of population, upon labor remuneration.

### INDUSTRIAL LABOR.

The employment of labor in manufacturing industries in Mexico is quite restricted, owing to the small extent to which manufacturing has been developed in that country. Although possessing immense natural resources, which would supply most of the raw materials of great industries, Mexico, which has not progressed very rapidly even in agriculture, is very far from occupying an important position in manufacturing. The progress which has recently been made is great in proportion to what had been accomplished previously, but small when considered absolutely or in relation to manufacturing in more advanced countries.

Speaking generally, manufacturing in Mexico is conducted on a small scale, in a primitive manner, and for an almost purely local market. The country is full of small distilleries and small tobacco factories, although in the latter industry there are also larger agglomerations of labor and capital. There are numerous small flour mills in the country, although not sufficient to satisfy the demand. A large amount of pottery is made by persons working singly or in small groups, and lace and drawn work are manufactured in the same manner. Felt and particularly straw hats are made in all parts of the country, and a number of other small industries exist on the same primitive scale.

There are in Mexico few industries conducted on a large scale or for an extensive market, but the tendency is entirely in that direction. The policy of the Government favors the protection of manufacturing, both directly, in the form of tariff, and indirectly, by the maintenance of the silver standard in the face of the depreciation of that metal. The depreciation in the value of silver has had the effect of adding to the protective tariff, since the price of imported articles has increased with every decrease in the value of the silver dollar, while the increase in the cost has not been so observable in the articles of home manufacture. The maintenance of the silver standard has



enabled many of the manufacturers to economize in the matter of wages and the raw materials produced within the country, since neither wages nor home prices have entirely maintained their gold-price level, and this protection is still very effective in the case of manufacturers catering to a foreign market. Cotton mills have sprung up in all parts of the country, and while, at the present time, there is a certain depression in that industry, due to the overproduction in the cheaper grades of goods, the tendency in this and other industries is toward extension and toward the development of industry.

The number of persons engaged in cotton manufacturing is rapidly increasing. According to the report for the year ending June, 1899, the number of operatives so employed was 21,960, or a total of somewhat less than two persons per thousand of the population. These persons were employed in 118 mills, with 13,944 looms and 468,547 spindles, the cotton consumed amounting during the year 1898-99 to 26,518 metric tons (of 2,204 pounds) and the value of the finished product to almost \$30,000,000. These facts are shown in the table following:

COTTON FACTORIES, LOOMS, SPINDLES, AND OPERATIVES, AND VALUE OF PRODUCT SOLD, IN MEXICO IN 1898-99.

State.	Factories.	Pounds of cotton consumed.	Spindles.	Looms.	Operatives.	Value of product sold (Mexican dollars).
Chiapas.....	1	252, 118	1, 500	60	100	\$100, 397. 54
Chihuahua.....	3	67, 969	900	21	52	28, 525. 50
Coahuila.....	9	3, 527, 417	34, 030	1, 041	1, 548	1, 692, 435. 66
Colima.....	3	511, 245	2, 392	46	170	119, 180. 00
Federal District.....	13	4, 872, 969	44, 978	1, 166	1, 863	2, 812, 511. 82
Durango.....	9	2, 602, 151	15, 248	653	923	1, 168, 436. 24
Guanajuato.....	4	3, 740, 256	21, 404	500	994	1, 381, 364. 44
Guerrero.....	2	442, 908	3, 318	131	242	122, 184. 66
Hidalgo.....	2	516, 084	5, 176	190	318	220, 783. 44
Jalisco.....	5	2, 526, 137	24, 545	498	990	1, 019, 089. 81
Mexico.....	6	4, 665, 289	33, 156	1, 160	2, 012	2, 285, 645. 32
Michoacan.....	5	1, 679, 568	14, 940	343	689	701, 362. 57
Nuevo Leon.....	4	1, 990, 811	16, 746	517	742	892, 855. 03
Oaxaca.....	3	1, 803, 004	18, 754	566	785	740, 530. 87
Puebla.....	20	8, 011, 024	67, 464	2, 359	3, 037	3, 931, 724. 14
Queretaro.....	4	2, 785, 277	25, 972	706	1, 230	2, 254, 651. 59
San Luis Potosi.....	1	579, 665	4, 640	138	266	203, 131. 18
Sinaloa.....	3	729, 618	6, 152	210	398	348, 069. 48
Sonora.....	1	381, 188	2, 774	94	150	195, 912. 49
Tepic.....	4	2, 070, 958	12, 176	359	590	802, 110. 78
Tlascala.....	7	3, 940, 566	31, 244	893	1, 324	2, 067, 527. 73
Vera Cruz.....	9	10, 766, 056	81, 038	2, 293	3, 537	6, 664, 985. 82
Total.....	a 118	58, 462, 278	468, 547	13, 944	21, 960	29, 753, 414. 11

a Of this number 6 are reported as not in operation.

The wages paid to operatives in cotton factories are considerably less than what is usually paid in the United States. Thus, in fourteen States, for which there is a record, the wages of the foremen amounted in five to only \$1, while in only three States were the minimum wages of foremen over \$1. The wages of spinners vary from 25 cents in San Luis Potosi to from 50 cents to \$2 in Oaxaca, while the wages for spinners, carders, washers, and weavers range between 50 cents and \$1 in

the Federal District and from 50 cents to \$1.12 in Puebla; the minimum wages of hands range from 18 cents in Hidalgo to 50 cents in Guerrero, and the maximum from 25 cents in Michoacan to 75 cents in the Federal District and several of the States. The wages of these classes of employees are presented in detail in the following table:

DAILY WAGES OF MEXICAN COTTON-FACTORY OPERATIVES IN 1896, BY STATES.

State.	Foremen.	Spinners.	Carders.	Washers.	Weavers.
Aguas Calientes .....		\$0.50	\$0.50	\$0.50	\$0.50
Mexico .....	\$1.50	\$0.50- .75	\$0.37- .50	\$0.37- .50	\$0.37- .50
Oaxaca .....	\$1.00- 5.00	.50- 2.00	.50- 1.00	.50- .75	.50- .75
Puebla .....	1.00- 3.00	.50- 1.12	.50- 1.12	.50- 1.12	.37- 1.00
San Luis Potosi.....		.25	.25	.25	.25
Sinaloa .....	2.00- 3.00	.62- 1.50	.62- 1.00	.62	.62- 1.00
Nuevo Leon .....	1.00	.75	.37- 1.00	.37- .75	
Coahuila .....	1.00- 2.00	.50- .75	.50- 1.00	.75	.50- 1.00
Chihuahua .....	1.00	.50- .75	.50- .75	.50- .75	.50- .75
Durango .....	1.00- 3.00	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00
Guanajuato .....	.62- 3.00	.37- 1.00	.37- 1.00	.37- .75	
Guerrero .....	1.00	.75	.50	.75	.75
Hidalgo .....	1.12	.18- .75	.18- .75	.18- .75	.18- .50
Jalisco .....	1.00	.31- 1.00	.25- .75	.37- .50	.37- 1.00
Michoacan .....	1.00	.50	.50	.37	.50
Federal District .....	2.00- 3.00	.50- 1.00	.50- 1.00	.50- 1.00	.50- 1.00

State.	Dyers.	Machinists.	Firemen.	Hands.
Aguas Calientes.....	\$0.50			
Mexico .....	\$0.50- .75	\$1.00	\$0.50	\$0.25- \$0.37
Oaxaca .....	1.00- 2.00			.50- .75
Puebla .....	.37- 1.00			.50
San Luis Potosi .....				.25
Sinaloa .....	1.00- 2.00	\$2.00- 3.00	\$0.75- 1.00	.62
Nuevo Leon .....				.37- .50
Coahuila .....	.50- 2.00	1.50	.50	.37- .50
Chihuahua .....	.50- .75		.50- .75	.37- .50
Durango .....	.37- 1.00			.37- .75
Guanajuato .....	.37- 2.00		.37	.37
Guerrero .....	.75			.50- .75
Hidalgo .....	.50- .75			.18- .50
Jalisco .....				.25- .31
Michoacan .....	.75		.50	.25
Federal District .....	1.00- 1.50	2.00- 3.00	.75- 1.00	.50- .75

There has never been, in Mexico, any official investigation of the statistics of wages of workmen in industrial establishments. These data, however, are obtainable in a crude form from some of the official publications. According to a report made by the secretary of the treasury, in 1880, (a) the daily wages in the City of Mexico of persons engaged in the manufacture of acids and chemical products range from 50 cents to \$1.50 silver, there being 50 men and 10 children so employed. In biscuit factories there were 100 men and 8 children employed, the average wage being 62 cents; in drug stores, 92 men were paid an average of \$1.50; in establishments for the manufacture and sale of shirts and linens there were 210 women employed, receiving an average of 25 cents. In ordinary carpenter work there were 300 men and 100

a Estadística de la República Mexicana. Resumen y Análisis de los Informes Rendidos á la Secretaría de Hacienda, por Emiliano Busto. 3 vols. Mexico, 1880.



boys employed, at an average remuneration of 75 cents, which was also the average paid for 70 men and 70 women employed in the manufacture of matches. The wages of 152 employees of the mint range from 50 cents to \$4, but the true average for such employees was not given. The 60 men and 10 women employed in the manufacture of beer were paid an average of 62 cents, and the wages in the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes, which employed 357 men, 2,100 women, and 250 boys and girls, ranged all the way from 18 cents to \$1.25. In the tanning industry, employing 600 men and 40 boys, the wages were given at \$1.50; while in bookbinding, employing 100 men and 50 boys, and in foundries, employing 80 men and 20 boys, the prevailing rate of wages of 75 cents was given. The same rate of wages was stated to apply in wheat-flour mills, employing 320 men, and in bakeries, employing 765 men. The average pay of 513 tailors was given at \$1, as was also that of 400 hat makers, while the average pay of 75 female hat makers was given at 37 cents. The average rate of remuneration of shoemakers, of whom there were 980 men, 290 women, and 580 boys and girls, was given at 50 cents. These wage statistics are very crude indeed, but they are the best obtainable for the period. Since then somewhat more exact figures have been collected, but none of these is satisfactory from every point of view. The wages of employees in the City of Mexico are presented in the report on money and prices in Mexico, given in Mr. Ransom's report before quoted, and still better and more recent statistics, not only for Mexico, but also for Guadalajara, Monterey, Puebla, and Vera Cruz are furnished by a report of the Italian minister in Mexico. According to this latter report, the wages of the shoemakers vary from 50 cents to \$2 in Mexico and Guadalajara; from 75 cents to \$1.50 in Monterey and Puebla; and from \$1.50 to \$2 in Vera Cruz. The mean of the average wages for the five cities (arithmetical mean) amounts to \$1.15, as compared with the wages of from \$1 to \$1.25 for the City of Mexico, presented in Mr. Ransom's report. The wages of tanners range from 75 cents to \$2 in Mexico and Monterey, but are somewhat lower in Guadalajara and somewhat higher in Puebla and Vera Cruz. The wages of electricians range from \$1 to \$3 in Mexico and from \$1 to \$5 in Monterey, and from \$2 to \$5 in Vera Cruz, while those of blacksmiths are stated to range from \$1 to \$3 in Mexico and to average \$1.75 in that city. The wages for the 27 industries herein included appear to be, for the most part, less, and in many cases considerably less, in silver than wages in the same industries would be in gold in American cities. The following table shows the maximum, minimum, and medium rate of wages for these industries in the five cities of Mexico, Guadalajara, Monterey, Puebla, and Vera Cruz, as well as the hours of labor prevailing in the industries:



DAILY WAGES (MAXIMUM, MEDIUM, AND MINIMUM) AND HOURS OF LABOR IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Occupation.	Mexico.				Guadalajara.				Monterey.			
	Hours of labor.	Daily wages.			Hours of labor.	Daily wages.			Hours of labor.	Daily wages.		
		Maximum.	Medium.	Minimum.		Maximum.	Medium.	Minimum.		Maximum.	Medium.	Minimum.
Shoemakers .....	10	\$2.00	\$1.00	\$0.50	10	\$2.00	\$1.00	\$0.50	10	\$1.50	\$1.00	\$0.75
Tanners .....	11	2.00	1.50	.75	11	1.50	1.25	.80	10	2.00	1.25	.75
Electricians .....	10	3.00	2.00	1.00	10	3.50	2.25	2.00	12	5.00	2.00	1.00
Blacksmiths .....	10	3.00	1.75	1.00	11	1.50	1.12	.75	10	2.00	1.00	.75
Carpenters .....	10	2.50	1.50	1.00	10	2.50	2.00	1.50	10	2.00	1.50	1.00
Metal engravers .....	10	3.00	2.00	1.00	10	2.50	2.00	1.50	10	3.00	1.50	1.00
Bookbinders .....	9	1.25	.90	.50	10	1.50	1.00	.50	10	1.50	.75	.50
Lithographers .....	10	3.00	2.00	1.00	10	3.00	1.50	1.00	10	3.00	2.00	.75
Engineers .....	10	5.00	2.50	1.00	10	5.00	4.00	2.00	12	5.00	3.00	1.50
Mechanicians .....	10	6.00	3.00	1.50	10	4.00	3.00	2.00	12	5.00	3.00	1.50
Miners .....	12	2.00	1.50	1.00	12	2.00	1.50	1.00	10	3.00	2.00	1.00
Master masons .....	10	4.00	3.00	1.50	10	2.50	1.25	1.00	10	5.00	3.00	2.00
Masons, apprentice .....	10	.75	.60	.40	10	.75	.60	.40	10	3.00	1.50	1.00
Painters and varnishers .....	10	2.00	1.50	1.00	10	3.00	2.00	1.00	10	4.00	2.00	1.00
Coppersmiths and braziers .....	11	2.00	1.50	1.00	11	2.00	1.50	1.00	10	2.00	1.50	1.00
Tailors .....	10	3.50	2.00	1.00	10	3.00	2.00	1.00	10	2.00	1.00	.75
Stonecutters .....	10	1.50	1.00	.75	10	1.50	1.25	.75	10	3.00	2.00	1.00
Marble-cutters .....	10	2.00	1.50	1.00	10	2.00	1.50	1.00	10	3.00	2.00	1.00
Saddlers .....	10	1.50	1.00	.75	10	1.25	1.00	.75	10	2.00	1.50	1.00
Tinsmiths .....	10	1.00	.90	.50	10	1.50	1.00	.50	10	2.00	1.50	.75
Plasterers .....	10	5.00	3.00	1.50	10	4.00	3.00	1.50	10	7.00	4.00	1.00
Earthworkers .....	10	1.00	.80	.50	10	1.00	.85	.40	10	.75	.62	.50
Weavers .....	12	2.00	1.50	1.00	12	2.50	1.50	1.00	10	1.50	1.00	.75
Dyers .....	11	1.50	1.00	.80	10	2.00	1.50	.80	10	1.50	1.25	1.00
Typographers .....	10	2.00	1.50	.90	11	2.00	1.00	.60	10	3.00	2.00	1.00
Turners .....	10	2.00	1.50	1.00	11	2.50	1.75	1.00	10	2.00	1.50	.75
Glaziers .....	10	1.50	1.25	.80	10	1.50	1.25	.80	12	2.00	1.50	1.00

Occupation.	Puebla.				Vera Cruz.			
	Hours of labor.	Daily wages.			Hours of labor.	Daily wages.		
		Maximum.	Medium.	Minimum.		Maximum.	Medium.	Minimum.
Shoemakers .....	10	\$1.50	\$1.00	\$0.75	10	\$2.00	\$1.75	\$1.50
Tanners .....	11	2.50	2.00	1.50	10	2.00	1.50	1.00
Electricians .....	10	3.00	2.00	1.50	9	5.00	3.50	2.00
Blacksmiths .....	11	2.00	1.50	1.00	9	2.50	2.00	1.50
Carpenters .....	10	2.50	2.00	1.50	9	3.00	2.50	2.00
Metal engravers .....	10	2.00	1.50	1.00	-----	-----	-----	-----
Bookbinders .....	10	1.00	.75	.50	10	2.00	1.50	1.00
Lithographers .....	10	3.00	2.50	2.00	10	3.00	2.25	1.50
Engineers .....	10	4.00	3.00	2.00	10	5.50	4.00	2.50
Mechanicians .....	10	5.00	3.00	2.00	10	4.00	3.00	2.00
Miners .....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Master masons .....	10	1.00	.75	.50	9	3.50	3.50	2.80
Masons, apprentice .....	10	.50	.37	.25	9	2.50	2.25	2.00
Painters and varnishers .....	10	1.50	1.00	.75	9	3.00	2.00	1.00
Coppersmiths and braziers .....	10	1.50	1.00	.75	10	1.50	1.25	1.00
Tailors .....	10	2.00	1.50	1.00	10	1.50	1.25	1.00
Stonecutters .....	10	1.25	1.00	.75	10	2.50	2.25	2.00
Marble-cutters .....	10	3.25	1.50	1.00	10	2.50	2.25	2.00
Saddlers .....	10	1.50	1.00	.75	10	3.00	2.25	1.50
Tinsmiths .....	10	1.00	.90	.50	10	2.00	1.50	1.00
Plasterers .....	10	3.00	2.00	1.50	-----	-----	-----	-----
Earthworkers .....	-----	-----	-----	-----	9	1.60	1.35	1.10
Weavers .....	12	1.50	1.00	.75	-----	-----	-----	-----
Dyers .....	10	1.50	1.00	.75	-----	-----	-----	-----
Typographers .....	10	1.50	1.00	.75	10	2.00	1.75	1.50
Turners .....	10	2.50	2.00	1.50	10	3.00	2.00	1.00
Glaziers .....	10	1.25	1.00	.75	9	2.50	2.00	1.00

The daily cost of living, that is, food and lodging, varies widely, according to this rough estimate. In Mexico it ranges from 50 cents to \$1.25, and the mean is about 90 cents. In Guadalajara the maxi-



imum, medium, and minimum are respectively 75, 50, and 37 cents; in Monterey, \$1.50, 75 cents and 50 cents; in Puebla, \$1.25, 90 cents and 50 cents, and in Vera Cruz, \$1, 85 cents and 70 cents.

### LABOR OF TRANSPORTATION.

In Aztec times there was small need for transportation, since the division of labor had not advanced to a point where there was any great need for the interchange of products. What transportation existed was carried on, in the absence of beasts of burden, by human carriers. It was the age of "the apotheosis of human backs and limbs."<sup>(a)</sup> Passengers were carried in frames, and for the rapid transfer of intelligence and of perishable goods relays of swift runners were used. By means of these runners communication was kept up with distant portions of the country, and couriers, trained from childhood, carried dispatches from 100 to 200 miles a day. On the authority of Prescott,<sup>(b)</sup> "fresh fish was frequently served at Montezuma's table in twenty-four hours from the time it had been taken in the Gulf of Mexico, 200 miles from the capital."

The amount of labor demanded by transportation increased vastly when from a small principality Mexico evolved into an integral and important part of a vast empire, upon which the sun never set. Mexico became the center of the vast Spanish empire, the great highway between Europe and the Orient and western South America. Beasts of burden were introduced, and many thousands of men spent their lives carrying a great commerce along the high roads from Vera Cruz on the Gulf to the City of Mexico, and thence to Acapulco, on the Pacific, or north to Durango and south to Oaxaca. Thousands of carriers were employed to take the goods from Vera Cruz to the highland, as at Jalapa, and to distribute them to the country. The immense commercial development of Mexico in the eighteenth century, the absence of navigable rivers, as well as the broken nature of the country, necessitated a vast army of carriers for its numerous exchanges.

After the achievement of independence it is probable that the number of men employed in transportation greatly decreased. Importation fell off; the industrial structure of the Spaniards was shattered, and the prevalence of contending armies and the growing pest of brigandage caused the internal commerce to shrink considerably. The character of the industry, however, remained the same, as well as the methods of carrying it on, and the "burro" and his driver remained typical of Mexico.

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<sup>a</sup>Mexico, a Geographical Sketch, compiled by the Bureau of American Republics, page 35. Washington, 1900.

<sup>b</sup>Conquest of Mexico, Volume I, page 44.



During the last quarter of a century, and notably since 1881, the industry of transportation has undergone an entire change, and has advanced from carriage by man and beast to haulage by the steam locomotive. The consequence has been that an entirely different and much more highly developed labor force has been called into requisition. The completion of the Mexican Railway from the capital to the seacoast at Vera Cruz, the subsequent paralleling of that line by a road running through Jalapa, the building of three railroads giving communication from the capital to the American border, and the extension of those lines in many directions, has necessitated a greater use being made of railway employees.

In the higher branches of the railroad service it has been found necessary in the past to obtain men from the United States, and in consequence the wages in these parts of the service compare favorably with those of the country from which the employees are recruited. On the Mexican International Railway, according to the rates of pay at present in force (November, 1901) the passenger engineers receive 6 cents, Mexican currency, per mile, and the freight engineers  $6\frac{1}{2}$  cents per mile. In the work and construction service engineers are paid \$6.50 per day of twelve hours, and 55 cents per hour for overtime. In the switching service the day's work also consists of twelve hours, and the pay is \$125 per month, and 35 cents is paid for each hour after thirty minutes over twelve hours. In some of the minor branches a fixed sum is paid to engineers where the mileage is not sufficient to constitute a fair return. On the Cuatro Ciénegas branch the rate of \$6 per day of one round trip is paid, overtime being paid at passenger rates; on the San Pedro branch 100 miles per day at passenger rate for one round trip—in other words, \$6; and for more than one round trip mileage is paid at passenger rates, as is also overtime. In calculating overtime the freight engineer is paid at the rate of 60 cents per hour, all time over thirty minutes being counted as an hour and all time under thirty minutes being disregarded. Overtime for passenger engineers is paid at the rate of 55 cents per hour. Overtime for extra freight trains is based on the running time of 13 miles per hour, and for extra passenger trains on their regular schedule time. The passenger rate per day is paid for attending courts under orders from the company, together with \$2 per day for expenses when away from the home station. In cases of suspension and investigation, where charges are not proven, 100 miles a day at passenger rate—in other words, \$6—is paid to engineers held for investigation, including the time of going to and returning from the investigation.

The basis of remuneration for firemen is similar but lower. In the passenger service firemen are paid  $3\frac{1}{2}$  cents per mile, in the freight service 4 cents per mile, and in the work and construction service \$3.75 per day of twelve hours and 32 cents per hour for all time in excess thereof. Switch firemen receive \$70 per calendar month, for a day of twelve



hours, and 20 cents per hour for all time after thirty minutes over twelve hours. Overtime for freight firemen is paid at the rate of 35 cents per hour and for passenger firemen at the rate of 30 cents per hour, the overtime being counted in the same manner as for engineers. Firemen watching engines are paid \$2 per night. The same rules regulating the attendance of engineers at court or their remuneration in case of being acquitted on charges apply to firemen, except that the remuneration is based upon the normal wages of the fireman and not upon those of engineers. Twelve hours constitute a day's work for hostlers, and the pay is \$115 per month, with 32 cents per hour for all time over thirty minutes after twelve hours. When required to do switching, hostlers are paid at the rate of 35 cents per hour.

### WAGES OF GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES.

The wages of Government employees furnish a fair index to those prevailing in similar skilled and unskilled occupations outside of the Government service. In the following statement an attempt has been made to give the wages for a large number of classes of employees controlled by the Government. In this selection the aim has been to give the wages paid in occupations in which are employed a large number of persons and in which wages are typical of those of large bodies of men both in and out of public service. The wages here given are based on the annual income upon the basis of three hundred and sixty-five days to the year. All wages herein given, as all others mentioned in this report, when not specifically stated to the contrary, are in silver or Mexican currency of a fluctuating value, at present approximately worth somewhat less than 50 cents American per dollar of Mexican money.

In the police service of the Federal District the general inspector receives \$4,500 per year, and his secretary \$3,000, or \$8.22 per day. The assistants receive \$2.47, and the interpreter \$2.20. The chief of section in each department receives \$3.29; the clerks of the first class \$1.65, and of the second class \$1. In the police service the secretaries receive \$3.29; officials, \$2.20, and clerks, \$1.50. There are eight companies of unmounted policemen, each with a commander receiving \$3.29, a clerk receiving \$1, and nine officers receiving \$2.31 per day. The pay of the unmounted policemen of the first class is \$1.50, and of the second class, of which there are 1,720, or about 96 per cent of the total, \$1 per day, or \$365 per year. The wages of the auxiliary guards amount to 50 cents per day. The same wages apply to the higher officials of the mounted police, but the policemen themselves, of whom there are 360, receive only 75 cents per day.

The wages of firemen also amount to \$1, but sergeants in this service are paid \$1.25, officers \$2, and the first and second chief or commander \$4.94 and \$2.64, respectively. The policemen in the Territory of Lower California receive higher wages as a rule than those in the



City of Mexico, the gendarmes in the central district receiving \$1.37 and those in the northern district \$1.50 per man. In the Territory of Tepic the wages of the police or gendarmes amount to \$361.35 per year, or to 99 cents per day. The mounted and unmounted men of the auxiliary police force of the Federation receive 50 cents per day. The rural guard receive \$1.11 per day.

The wages of teachers and other persons engaged in the public schools are also paid by the Government. These wages vary slightly with the location. Thus, in the 110 schools for elementary education in the capital, the wages of the directors or chief instructors amount to \$2.14 per day, or \$781.10 per year, while those of the assistants are \$1.32 per day, or \$481.80 per year. In the mixed schools the wages paid are lower, averaging \$1.81 per day for the directors and \$1.16 for the assistants, while in the night schools the wages are \$1.65 and 99 cents, respectively. Teachers of drawing and English receive 99 cents per day and the janitors 17 cents per day. In the other cities of the district the wages for the instruction of children range somewhat lower; thus, in the primary schools of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, the wages of directors amount to \$1.32, and of assistants to 82 cents per day, which are also the rates of wages in Tacubaya, Tlalpan, and Xochimilco, all of which are situated in the Federal District. In the mixed schools in these minor towns of the Federal District the directors receive \$1.16 and the assistants 66 cents per day, while the laborers employed in the schools receive 27 cents and in the night schools 17 cents per day. In Lower California the directors receive \$1.65, and the assistants 83 cents in the boys' and girls' schools, and \$1.32 and 83 cents, respectively, in the mixed schools. The same rate of pay also prevails in Tepic.

The following table shows the average annual wages of teachers in each State. These averages have been obtained by dividing the total sum paid to teachers by the total number of teachers employed.

AVERAGE ANNUAL WAGES OF TEACHERS (MALE AND FEMALE) IN THE MEXICAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN 1898.

[These wages have been obtained by dividing the total sum paid to teachers by their number.]

State.	Average annual wages.	State.	Average annual wages.
Aguas Calientes.....	\$252	Puebla .....	\$487
Campeche.....	570	Queretaro .....	364
Coahuila .....	632	San Luis Potosi.....	306
Colima .....	300	Sinaloa .....	254
Chiapas .....	390	Sonora .....	408
Chihuahua.....	456	Tabasco .....	452
Durango .....	370	Tlascala .....	451
Federal District.....	731	Vera Cruz .....	558
Guanajuato .....	568	Yucatan.....	120
Guerrero .....	356	Zacatecas.....	460
Hidalgo .....	504	Tepic .....	341
Jalisco .....	440	Lower California .....	442
Mexico.....	402		
Michoacan .....	408		
Nuevo Leon .....	390	Average for country.....	434



The wages of instruction in the secondary and professional schools are higher; thus in the normal school for teachers in the City of Mexico the teachers of Spanish, grammar, of general and national history, of constitutional right and political economy, of mathematics, of physics, chemistry, natural history, geography, physiology, hygiene, etc., receive \$1,200 per year, or \$3.29 per day. Another set of teachers receives \$800, others \$600, while several assistants receive only \$300 per year. The same rates of pay prevail for the normal school for female teachers. The wages of the servants of the school range between 66 and 83 cents per day, while those in the National Preparatory School average about 75 cents per day. The range of remuneration in the high schools seems to be between \$600 and \$1,200 per year, not including the directors.

The wages of servants at the National Palace also furnish a certain index of the rate of wages prevailing in the capital. Coachmen there receive \$1.65 per day (in this case, as in all others, for every day in the year), the lackeys 99 cents, the watchmen 66 cents, and the gardeners from 50 to 81 cents, while the ordinary laborers receive 50 cents. The electrician receives \$1.02 per day. In the castle of Chapultepec the wages are 50 cents for the ordinary laborers, 75 cents for the watchmen, 59 cents for the workmen who clean up the place, 66 cents for the porter, and \$1 for the gardener.

In the general administration of the post-office the chiefs of section receive \$3,000 per year, or \$8.22 per day, and the chiefs of department \$2,401.70, or \$6.58 per day. Of the officials, 2 of the first class receive \$5.48 per day, six of the second \$4.94 per day, 14 of the third \$4.11 per day, 21 of the fourth \$3.29 per day, 22 of the fifth \$2.74 per day, 2 of the seventh \$2.20 per day, and 11 of the eighth \$1.98 per day. Of the clerks, 62 receive \$1.65 per day, 3 of the second \$1.37 per day, 3 of the fourth \$1 per day, and 17 of the sixth 66 cents per day. The laborers of the first class receive \$1 and of the second 83 cents per day.

The number in each wage class and the daily wages paid to administrators, clerks, letter carriers, laborers, and messengers in the local administration of the post-office, are shown in the following table:

DAILY WAGES OF EMPLOYEES IN GENERAL ADMINISTRATION OF POST-OFFICE.

Administrators.		Clerks.		Letter carriers.		Laborers.		Messengers.	
Number.	Daily wages.	Number.	Daily wages.	Number.	Daily wages.	Number.	Daily wages.	Number.	Daily wages.
2	\$9.59	63	\$1.65	7	\$1.65	23	\$1.00	7	\$1.10
3	6.58	87	1.37	98	1.37	9	.83	14	1.00
7	4.94	9	1.10	69	1.00	25	.66	34	.83
4	4.11	44	1.00	62	.83	40	.50	48	.66
16	3.29	36	.83	39	.66	25	.33	141	.50
14	2.74	51	.66	54	.50	9	.20	62	.33
5	2.47	27	.50	26	.33			71	.25
2	2.20	4	.33	32	.25			22	.20
14	1.98			14	.20			25	.17
21	1.65								
26	1.50								
27	1.25								
102	1.00								
288	.83								



In the telegraph service the wages of the officials range from \$1,000 in the fifth to \$2,000 per year in the first class. There is 1 telegraph operator of the third class receiving \$4.11 per day, or \$1,500 per year; 2 of the fifth class are receiving \$3.29, or \$1,200 per year; 4 of the sixth receiving \$2.74, or \$1,000 per year; 1 of the seventh receiving \$2.64. The majority of the telegraph operators, however, receive less, there being 28 in the eighth class receiving \$2.47 per day; 3 in the ninth receiving \$2.31 per day, 25 in the tenth receiving \$1.98 per day, and 1 in the eleventh receiving \$1.50 per day. Of the messengers, 4 of the first class receive 99 cents, 24 of the second 75 cents, 2 of the fifth 33 cents, 2 of the sixth 27 cents per day. The wages of purely manual labor range here as in the other departments.

In the artillery service of the army colonels are paid at the rate of \$7.75 per day, lieutenant-colonels \$4.96, majors \$4.28, first captains \$3.13, second captains \$2.64, lieutenants \$2.14, sergeants 95 cents, artillerymen of the first class 59 cents, and of the second 48 cents. In the same service the stewards receive \$2.96, the nurses 53 cents, veterinarians 83 cents, cooks from 53 to 83 cents, and the scullerymen from 30 to 40 cents; the janitor receives 60 cents and laborers 40 cents.

In the infantry service the colonels are paid at the rate of \$6.76, lieutenants \$4.53, majors \$4.03, first captains \$2.64, second captains \$2.31. The soldiers in the infantry receive 30 cents per day, or \$109.50 per year. In the artillery the soldiers receive 37 cents per day.

In the preparation of stamps the engravers of the first class receive \$3,000 per year, of the second \$1,800, third \$1,500, fourth \$1,200 (fractions of a dollar being here omitted), while the assistants receive \$1,000 in the first and \$803 in the second class. The pressmen receive from \$2.74 to \$3.29, or from \$1,000 to \$1,200 per year, and their assistants from \$1.65 to \$1.92 per day, or from \$600 to \$700 per year.

### DIET OF THE LABORING CLASSES.

The diet of the Mexican of the working classes is very restricted and very low. Of meat, eggs, milk, and other animal products but small quantities are consumed. The range of vegetables is also limited, especially among the peon classes.

The great article of diet is maize or Indian corn. This has been the chief product of Mexico since long before the conquest, and to-day it still retains an unchallenged precedence among the food staples of the country. The corn is consumed in different shapes and forms, from the green and half ripe ear to the grits and meal.

According to one authority half of the food of the Mexican consists of *tortillas*, or flat corn cakes. The corn is allowed to soak in hot water, weakly diluted with lime, in which state it is called *nixtamal*. It is then crushed on a flat stone, called a *metate*, by means of a roller



of the same material, and from the resulting mass the flat, thin cakes are rolled and patted by hand, and then baked on a flat dish, called a *comal*. There is a vast consumption of corn in this form (*tortillas*), but *tamales* are also eaten in great quantities. *Tamales* are made by mixing lard, butter, red pepper, and meats with the boiled corn meal, which is then enveloped in corn husks and boiled. These are sold on the dusty streets and at railway stations, but to the elsewhere educated palate they appear, in this condition at least, less seductive than to the Mexican peon. In certain parts of the coast region a mixture of corn meal and brown sugar, called *pinole*, is eaten with zest.

Some of the indigenous plants eaten by the natives are enumerated in a paper by F. Semeleder, M. D., of Vera Cruz, presented at the 1897 (Philadelphia) meeting of the American Medical Association, and reproduced in its journal January 29, 1898. He includes "the sprouts of a *Smilacea*, eaten like asparagus; the buds and flower of the palm *Chamædorea tepejilote* (called *metepehuiles*); the sprout of a large palm, which is eaten like cabbage; the young and tender leaves of the *Opuntia* (nopal, prickly pear), called *nopalitos*; the leaves of a *Piperacea*, *tlalne-paquelitl*; the flower of the *Yucca gloriosa*; the gombo, *Hibiscus gombo*; the flowers of a *Papilionacea*, *Erythrina coralloides*, called *quimites* and *gasparitos*; the red and green pepper (*Capsicum annuum*); tomatoes, red and green (*Lycopersicum* and other *solaneas*); the pumpkin, when young and tender, or when fully developed; the pumpkin flower; melon and watermelon (introduced from Europe); the flower of the *quaunzontle* (*blitus bonus Henricus*). In the northern States the prickly pear (*tuna*, in Spanish) forms a great item in the subsistence of poor people." By far the greatest consumption of the people, however, is made up of corn and beans, corn being the only cereal product consumed in great quantities by the masses of the people.

After corn the great article of diet among Mexicans of the poorer classes is beans. This may almost be called the characteristically Mexican food, since corn is the main article of diet in many nations. Even in the higher social ranks, where European, and more especially French, cooking seems to prevail, the *frijoles* or beans appear to hold a disproportionate place in the menu. Among the common people the consumption is very great. Thus, according to the crop statistics for 1898, which, however, are probably considerably too low, there were raised and consumed in that year 4,395,380 hectoliters (12,472,984 bushels), which were valued at \$17,768,890. The crop was raised in every State and Territory of the country, although principally in Vera Cruz, Hidalgo, Guanajuato, Puebla, Jalisco, and Mexico, in the order named, and the consumption was equally widespread and universal. The consumption of meat, eggs, milk, butter, fresh vegetables, and fruits, on the other hand, appears to be small on the plateau. The commerce in perishable food seems to be quite undeveloped, and the



absence of large cold-storage plants renders it difficult even for the richer classes to obtain vegetables or fruits grown at a distance, while the prices of such articles render their use impossible for the poorer people. The quality of meat used by the poorer people is very poor; the cattle are inferior to American animals, and little care is used in breeding. For animal food recourse is often had in the large cities to meats in such condition and of such a nature as to be neither appetizing nor wholesome; but, while the consumption of meat among the better-to-do classes is extraordinarily great, especially in view of the climate, the meat consumption of the working classes is extremely limited. Some indication of the consumption of meat in the Federal District and in the country at large is afforded by the tables showing the number and weight of animals slaughtered, and their value, which follows:

NUMBER, NET WEIGHT, AND VALUE OF CATTLE SLAUGHTERED IN THE CITY OF MEXICO,  
1878 TO 1898.

Year.	Cattle.			Sheep.			Hogs.		
	Num- ber.	Pounds of meat.	Value.	Num- ber.	Pounds of meat.	Value.	Num- ber.	Pounds of meat.	Value.
1878...	59,751	18,185,457	\$1,135,269	92,031	2,427,906	\$219,033	.....	.....	.....
1879...	63,336	19,279,603	1,203,384	100,661	2,655,551	239,573	.....	.....	.....
1880...	66,494	20,246,878	1,263,766	110,728	2,921,193	263,532	.....	.....	.....
1881...	69,519	21,161,717	1,320,856	102,824	2,712,701	244,721	.....	.....	.....
1882...	69,562	21,174,807	1,321,278	114,322	3,015,987	272,086	.....	.....	.....
1883...	69,916	21,282,565	1,328,404	122,643	3,235,508	291,890	.....	.....	.....
1884...	70,163	21,357,754	1,333,097	122,197	3,223,733	290,828	.....	.....	.....
1885...	73,020	22,227,405	1,387,380	115,967	3,059,368	276,001	.....	.....	.....
1886...	76,624	23,324,464	1,455,856	124,021	3,271,893	295,169	.....	.....	.....
1887...	78,598	23,925,358	1,493,362	120,522	3,179,579	286,842	49,935	12,666,921	\$1,188,453
1888...	83,228	25,334,734	1,581,332	130,263	3,436,516	310,025	42,549	10,793,333	1,012,666
1889...	86,898	26,451,886	1,651,062	130,425	3,440,807	310,411	45,010	11,417,605	1,071,238
1890...	83,878	25,532,596	1,593,682	129,157	3,407,343	307,393	52,167	13,233,109	1,241,574
1891...	87,505	26,636,662	1,662,595	131,892	3,479,513	313,902	51,202	12,988,319	1,218,607
1892...	89,160	27,140,447	1,694,040	130,760	3,449,682	311,208	39,885	10,117,555	949,263
1893...	84,904	25,844,912	1,613,176	132,697	3,500,720	315,818	26,126	6,627,338	621,798
1894...	81,291	24,744,679	1,544,529	107,383	2,832,891	255,571	39,476	10,013,635	939,528
1895...	85,870	26,115,016	1,631,530	108,578	2,864,315	258,415	50,538	12,568,207	1,202,804
1896...	89,469	27,234,034	1,699,911	90,971	2,399,859	216,510	52,548	13,329,526	1,250,642
1897...	94,304	28,898,733	1,791,776	99,289	2,626,734	236,307	61,129	15,632,901	1,454,727
1898...	95,957	29,193,734	1,919,140	106,708	2,823,007	266,770	67,048	16,998,789	1,609,152

The crude, tasteless, and monotonous diet of the Mexican of the laboring classes is rendered tolerable by an excessive use of condiments, namely, of red and green pepper (which dulls the taste), and a frequently enormous consumption of intoxicating drinks. Chief among Mexican drinks is pulque, which is made by fermenting the juice of the maguey plant. It is a white liquid with an acrid smell and a slightly sour taste, the liking for which must generally be acquired. It is carried to the city every day from the great pulque farms, in the valley of Mexico, where it is a very profitable crop, and is drunk within a few days after it is made. To the uninitiated it is pleasanter before fermentation; but to the peons, who drink it in enormous quantities, it must be far advanced in fermentation before it is palatable. It is insidious and quite intoxicating, especially when taken in large



quantities. Pure, and in small quantities, it is held by native physicians to be an aid to digestion and to possess excellent nutritive qualities, but in the city it is diluted with dirty water (*bautizado*, according to the phrase of the city), and is adulterated beyond the point of facile recognition. In the pulque shops of the streets it is drunk under indescribably filthy conditions, where every canon of decency is defied in all the arrangements. Most of the murderous quarrels in the city originate in these hovels; but apart from the many murders that occur there, it is probable that the "pulque joints" of the capital present a lower spectacle of the brute man and a more unfavorable view of Mexican civilization than can be obtained in any other place in that well-governed city. (*a*)

In the lowlands of the coast brandy made from sugar cane takes the place of pulque, and in other places, notably in Guadalajara and other places in Jalisco, the consumption of alcoholic liquors is chiefly diverted to *mescal* or *tequila*, a brandy which is very much in favor. In the neighborhood of the capital, however, pulque must be considered not only as a stimulant, but as a staple of consumption, important, though deleterious. (*b*)

The diet of the Mexican laborer, or, speaking more generally, of the great bulk of the Mexican people, is restricted, not only in variety, but equally in quantity. While there are no statistics available to prove this other than the crop statistics of the Mexican Government, these figures and all other indications point to a very limited consumption. As a rule the Mexican peon (using this word in its most general sense) is very poorly fed, so much so that in many cases his inefficiency as a workman is largely traceable to malnutrition. The statistics of mortality in the City of Mexico show an inordinately large proportion of persons dying from diseases of the stomach and digestive organs, and the generally high mortality throughout the country, especially in the cases of infants, is supposed to be largely attributable to the same cause. Large masses of the population suffer from anemia, partly as a result of the small amount and small nutritive value of the food consumed. The meager diet of the native population of the poorer classes, and especially of the Indians, is not, it is true, without its advocates.

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*a* The appalling amount of drunkenness, especially in the capital, and its effect upon the efficiency of labor, are elsewhere treated.

*b* In 1898 there were produced (and consumed), according to the report of agricultural statistics (see *Anuario Estadístico*), 15,780,723 gallons of sugar-cane brandy, of a value of \$7,605,266 (Mexican currency); 11,565,521 gallons of *mescal* or *tequila*, valued at \$8,958,981; 64,869,585 gallons of pulque, valued at \$4,637,531; 97,000,873 gallons of *tlachique*, valued at \$5,391,301; and 705,598 gallons of brandy made from pulque, valued at \$537,139. Nearly five-sixths of the *mescal* was produced in Jalisco and Zacatecas, a large part going to Guadalajara, while almost half of the pulque was raised in the little State of Tlascala.



In an article published as early as 1875(*a*) a Mexican physician of reputation goes so far as to defend the frugal fare of the Indian, consisting of corn, chili, and pulque, and states that both the Indian and the Spaniard were perfectly healthy, both physically and mentally, before the introduction of foreign customs. In this article and in another published in 1874(*b*) the author, in a treatment which occasionally savors of the idyl, appears to deprecate the increasing consumption of wheat, and ascribes the ills of the population entirely to alcoholism, coffeeism (*el cafeismo*), and to the cerebral excitability caused by foreign habits and imported vices rather than to the low standard of life. It must be admitted that the endurance of the Mexican laborer, in view of his insufficient nutrition, is astounding, but the vast majority of authorities agree that the capacity and desire for work of the Mexican laborer can not increase very materially unless there is at the same time an increase in the amount and a greater variety in the kinds of food consumed.

### COST OF LIVING.

In explanation of the low wages prevailing in Mexico it has been frequently stated that the cost of living in that country is very much cheaper than in the United States, and that as a consequence wages tend to equalize themselves to a certain extent. This, however, appears to be based on a false assumption. The wages received by Mexican employées, whether agricultural or industrial, actually suffice for the bare maintenance of life and for a real increase in the population. It is therefore self-evident that the cost of living is less than the wages received. The conclusion to be deduced from this fact, however, is merely that the Mexican laborer consumes very much less, and not, as has been too frequently assumed, that the individual article of consumption costs less. There have been several tables published bearing on the cost of living in Mexico, (*c*) and from such information as is obtainable it appears that for the great staples of consumption the price in silver is considerably greater in Mexico than the price in the United States in gold, and that on the whole the cost of the staples of consumption is still actually greater in Mexico, when prices are reduced to a common gold standard. Thus the greatest staple of consumption in all Mexico, corn, which is consumed to a far larger extent than any

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*a* José G. Lobato, De la alimentación de las razas indígenas de México, comparada con la alimentación adoptada por las razas criolla y extranjera, in *El Observador Médico Mexicano*, 1875, January to April, 170-174, 187-191, 205-207, 221-222.

*b* J. G. Lobato, *Meteorología de México*, in *El Observador Médico Mexicano*, April, 1874.

*c* See report represented by Romero, *Mexico and United States*, pages 532, 533, and 534, from official sources and relative to the year 1891. See report of Mr. Ransom on Money and Prices in Mexico, and report of Mr. Crittenden, also other statements of Mexican prices, both retail and wholesale, of which a résumé is made in Romero, *Labor and Wages in Mexico*, reprinted in *Mexico and United States*: New York, 1898.



other single commodity, although its price fluctuates greatly, frequently costs more than it does in the United States. There is no exportation of corn from Mexico to compete with the American corn, and the whole trend is in the opposite direction. On September 13, 1901, this commodity was selling in the City of Mexico at from \$2 to \$2.18 silver per bushel, and during the whole year, from January on, the prices fluctuated around \$1.50 silver per bushel.<sup>(a)</sup> Another article of great consumption, cotton, which is exclusively used by the great masses of the laboring population, is also much more expensive in Mexico than in the United States. The price of the raw product, which is at present (September 13, 1901) from 20 to 24 cents silver per pound, is always higher in gold than the price of the American product in New York, since a great part of the cotton manufactured for the consumption of the Mexican people is of American growth. The price of the finished product, consisting of the roughest grades of cotton cloth, is very much in excess of prices paid in the United States. The price of meat varies in the different parts of the country, and no definite rule can be established for these prices, while the same is true of beans, chili, and some other agricultural products which are usually cheap in the place of their actual production, but much dearer at any distance. Fuel is extremely dear wherever there is no great wood supply, but the consumption of fuel for domestic purposes is almost entirely restricted to cooking and is of far less importance in Mexico than in the United States.

The question whether a person of wealth can live more cheaply in Mexico than in the United States is not here under discussion. The question whether the American workman, with his present gold wages converted into silver, could enjoy more of the comforts and luxuries of life in Mexico with it than in the United States, is also not pertinent. The question appears to resolve itself chiefly into one whether the average Mexican laborer, and therefore the laborer of a low type, with low wages and with small wants, can secure a greater amount of corn, beans, chili, and cotton cloth in Mexico than he could if living in the United States. The prices annexed seem to indicate that, upon the whole, the price of these articles exceeds their price in the United States in a greater ratio than the value of the gold dollar exceeds the value of the silver dollar.

The following table shows the prices of various staple commodities in the Mexican market at various times during the current year:

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<sup>a</sup> This high price is somewhat abnormal, there being a deficient crop followed by cornering, and as a consequence the Government has taken the duty off corn to promote the introduction of the American product. The result has been that its price has fallen to a lower level, ranging from \$1.09 to \$1.27, silver, per bushel in the City of Mexico on Friday, January 10, 1902. The considerable importation of corn from the United States, however, shows very clearly that the price of the commodity in the latter country is less than that in Mexico, even when the silver price prevailing in Mexico is reduced to a gold basis.



## PRICES (SILVER) OF STAPLE COMMODITIES IN THE CITY OF MEXICO MARKET AT CERTAIN DATES IN 1901.

Mar- ginal No.	Commodity.	January 4, 1901.	February 1, 1901.	March 1, 1901.	April 12, 1901.	May 3, 1901.
1	Brandy (in barrels of 68.68 quarts), per quart.	\$0.20½-0.23¼	\$0.21¼-0.24¼	\$0.25½-0.27¾	\$0.25½-0.27¾	\$0.25½-0.27¾
2	Cotton, Laguna (in lots of 101.4 pounds), per pound.	.24¼- .25¼	.25¼- .26¼	.25¼- .26¼	.23¼- .24¼	.23¼- .24¼
3	Cotton, Vera Cruz (in lots of 101.4 pounds), per pound.	.20¼- .21¼	.20¼- .21¼	.20¼- .21¼	.20¼- .21¼	.20¼- .21¼
4	Anise seed, per pound .....	.07¼- .08¼	.07¼- .08¼	.09 - .10	.09 - .10	.09 - .10
5	Canary seed, per pound .....	.08¼- .09	.08¼- .09	.06¾- .07¼	.06 - .06¾	.06¼- .06¾
6	Indigo, best quality, per pound....	1.36 -1.70	1.36 -1.70	1.36 -1.58¾	1.36 -1.58¾	1.36 -1.58¾
7	Rice, las Villas (in lots of 101.4 pounds), per pound.	.079- .089	.079- .089	.079- .089	.079- .089	.079- .089
8	Rice, Jojutla (in lots of 101.4 pounds), per pound.	.052- .057	.052- .054	.052- .054	.052- .054	.052- .054
9	Rice, Michoacán (in lots of 101.4 pounds), per pound.	.047- .052	.047- .049	.047- .049	.047- .049	.047- .049
10	Sugar, loaf (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.099- .108	.089- .099	.089- .099	.089- .099	.089- .099
11	Sugar, powdered (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.079- .089	.079- .089	.079- .089	.079- .089	.079- .089
12	Sugar, mixed, entreverado (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.099- .108	.089- .099	.089- .099	.089- .099	.089- .099
13	Sugar, ordinary (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.093- .099	.084- .089	.084- .089	.084- .089	.084- .089
14	Sugar, medium (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.091- .096	.081- .086	.081- .086	.081- .086	.081- .086
15	Sugar, brown (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.089- .093	.079- .081	.079- .081	.079- .081	.079- .081
16	Cacao, Tabasco, per pound .....	.50 - .50¾	.45¼- .47¼	.45¼- .47¼	.40¾- .43	.40¾- .43
17	Coffee, las Villas, per pound .....	.19 - .19½	.19 - .19½	.16¾- .17¼	.16¾- .17¼	.16¾- .17¼
18	Coffee, La Sierra, per pound .....	.18¼- .19	.18¼- .19	.16¼- .16¾	.16¼- .16¾	.16¼- .16¾
19	Barley, per bushel .....	1.05¾-1.14½	1.05¾-1.14½	.88 - .97	.88 - .97	.88 - .97
20	Wax, Sierra, per pound .....	.81¾- .86¼	.81¾- .86¼	.81¾- .86¼	.81¾- .86¼	.81¾- .86¼
21	Chili, dried broad ( <i>ancho</i> ), per pound.	2.04 -2.26¾	2.04 -2.26¾	1.58¾-1.81½	1.58¾-1.81½	1.58¾-1.81½
22	Chili, dried thin ( <i>pasilla</i> ), per pound.	1.36 -2.49½	1.36 -2.49½	1.36 -2.49½	1.36 -2.49½	1.36 -2.49½
23	Chili, mulato, per pound .....	2.26¾-2.72¼	2.26¾-2.72¼	2.26¾-2.72¼	2.26¾-2.72¼	2.26¾-2.72¼
24	Beans, French or kidney, brown, per bushel.	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½
25	Beans, French or kidney, parra- leño, per bushel.	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½	1.58½-2.11½
26	Beans, French or kidney, black, per bushel.	1.76¼-1.85	1.76¼-1.85	1.76¼-1.93¾	1.76¼-1.93¾	1.93¾-2.11½
27	Beans, French or kidney, garban- cillo, per bushel.	1.76¼-2.11½	1.76¼-2.11½	1.76¼-2.11½	1.76¼-2.11½	1.76¼-2.11½
28	Flour, superfine (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.049- .053	.049- .053	.056- .059	.056- .059	.056- .059
29	Wool, uncombed (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.23¼- .31½	.23¼- .31½	.23¼- .31½	.23¼- .31½	.23¼- .31½
30	Corn, per bushel .....	1.23¼-1.41	1.23¼-1.41	1.23¼-1.41	1.23¼-1.41	1.23¼-1.41
31	Lard (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.21¾- .23¾	.21¾- .23¾	.21¾- .23¾	.21¾- .23¾	.21¾- .23¾
32	Mescal, Tequila (in barrels of 68.68 quarts), per quart.	.26¼- .32	.26¼- .32	.26¼- .32	.26¼- .32	.26¼- .32
33	Mescal, Chorrera (in barrels of 68.68 quarts), per quart.	.23¼- .26¼	.23¼- .26¼	.23¼- .26¼	.23¼- .26¼	.23¼- .26¼
34	Salt, sea (in lots of 220.46 pounds), per pound.	.022- .023	.022- .023	.022- .023	.022- .023	.022- .023
35	Salt, San Luis (in lots of 220.46 pounds), per pound.	.02 - .022	.02 - .022	.02 - .022	.02 - .022	.02 - .022
36	Tallow (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.13¾- .14¾	.13¾- .14¾	.13¾- .14¾	.13¾- .14¾	.13¾- .14¾
37	Tobacco, Tlapacoyan, 1st (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.19¾- .21¾	.19¾- .21¾	.19¾- .21¾	.19¾- .21¾	.19¾- .21¾
38	Tobacco, Tlapacoyan, 2d (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾
39	Tobacco, Tlapacoyan, 3d (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.11¾- .13¾	.11¾- .13¾	.11¾- .13¾	.11¾- .13¾	.11¾- .13¾
40	Tobacco, compostela plana (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.09¾- .11¾	.09¾- .11¾	.09¾- .11¾	.09¾- .11¾	.09¾- .11¾
41	Tobacco, compostela punta (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.04 - .05	.04 - .05	.04 - .05	.04 - .05	.04 - .05
42	Tobacco, Córdoba principal (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾	.17¾- .19¾
43	Tobacco, Córdoba congo (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.15¾- .17¾	.15¾- .17¾	.15¾- .17¾	.15¾- .17¾	.15¾- .17¾
44	Tobacco, Córdoba punta (in lots of 25.35 pounds), per pound.	.08 - .09¾	.08 - .09¾	.08 - .09¾	.08 - .09¾	.08 - .09¾
45	Wheat, valley of Toluca (in lots of 5.92 bushels), per bushel.	2.02¾-2.11¼	2.02¾-2.11¼	2.02¾-2.11¼	2.02¾-2.11¼	2.02¾-2.11¼
46	Wheat, interior (in lots of 5.92 bushels), per bushel.	2.19½-2.28	2.19½-2.28	2.19½-2.28	2.19½-2.28	2.19½-2.28



PRICES (SILVER) OF STAPLE COMMODITIES IN THE CITY OF MEXICO MARKET AT  
CERTAIN DATES IN 1901.

[illegible]

## LABOR OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

Boys are not admitted into workshops until 12 years of age, or until they shall have received a primary education. The employer is held responsible for the character of labor given to such minors, and a boy is not supposed to undertake an adult's work until he shall have passed his sixteenth year. In agriculture, however, it is not uncommon to see boys under 12 years of age employed, in consequence of the scarcity of suitable labor. The authorities are supposed to insist that such boys under 12 years of age shall have the advantage of several hours a day at school, and that the work of all minors shall be regulated so as not to prevent their healthy physical development.

In the mining industries there are frequent violations of the rule that children under 12 years of age shall not be employed. In some cases the work assigned to them is easy and adapted to their age, but they are also employed in the reduction of the ores by the *patio* process, which exposes them constantly to the ill effects of mercury, and is extremely deleterious.

Girls usually begin to work in their thirteenth or fourteenth year, either in workshops or in household service. There is a greater demand for them in domestic service than in workshops or in the factory, since there is a strong prejudice against the employment of the sex in industrial enterprises. They are extensively employed in the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes, however, although the general rule is not to accept them under the age of 13.

The employment of women in the mines is a rare occurrence. Thus, out of a total of 89,072 persons working in the mines in 1898, only 812, or less than 1 per cent, were women. In the reduction of the ores there is a still smaller percentage of women employed. Out of a total of 24,811 persons employed in this work, only 145 were women, or, in other words, there were employed less than 6 women per 1,000. Of these 145 women, 90 were employed in the reduction works in the State of Chihuahua, where they formed 8.9 per cent of the total employees. In the remaining portions of the Republic there was only 1 woman per 400 persons employed in the reduction of metals.

In agriculture, also, the employment of women is, as shown by the official statistics, extremely restricted, there being only 10,149 women given as employed in agriculture out of a total of 2,890,991, or, in other words, less than 0.4 of 1 per cent of all engaged in the industry. These figures, however, do not appear to take into account the women who are occasionally engaged at harvesting or other work of a temporary and pressing nature, nor does it include those women who are engaged in subsidiary agricultural occupations. These are usually given as women without occupation, or engaged in household work,



although, apart from keeping their huts in order and preparing food for their husbands, their labor may occasionally be called into requisition.

In the professions the percentage of women employed is also small, if we except the occupation of teaching, in which 6,463 out of a total of 12,583 were women. There were also 2,076 midwives and about a score of female dentists, druggists, and physicians. In commerce, however, women are more strongly represented, there being 55,062 women or almost 24 per cent of the total of 233,222 persons so employed. This includes agents, brokers, merchants, clerks, hawkers, peddlers, and proprietors of large or small industries.

In industrial pursuits, the women of Mexico have not as yet engaged as extensively as in other countries. Such occupations as sewing and laundering are, of course, monopolized by them, there being 70,125 seamstresses and 48,923 laundresses, as compared to 537 launderers. There are also 2,738 milliners, 229 female lace makers (*pasamaneros*) and a number of others engaged in sewing. In the making of palm mats the labor of women is also chiefly used, there being 9,727 women so employed, as against 1,791 men. In the making of artificial flowers and in palm weaving they are also in preponderance. In the making of cigarettes the cheaper female labor is used to a very large extent, there being 8,930 women so employed, as against 1,467 men. In the making of cigars, on the other hand, the labor of men is chiefly relied upon to the almost entire exclusion of women, the female hands forming less than 8 per cent of the total.

On the whole, however, the number of women employed in gainful occupations of any kind, exclusive of domestic service or other household work, is extremely small. This will be evident from a consideration of the statistics of employment. Of a grand total of 6,301,262 females in 1895 in Mexico, 266,307, or 4.2 per cent, were in school or college; 1,597,990, or 25.3 per cent, were without occupation, being too young; 231,395, or 3.7 per cent, were with occupation unknown, while 2,557,429, or 40.6 per cent, were classed as without occupation. Of the remainder almost two-thirds were engaged in household work, there being 925,965, or 14.7 per cent, of the total number of females in the Republic classified as household workers, and 187,864, or 3 per cent, classified as domestic servants. Making these deductions, there would remain only 534,312, or 8.5 per cent, of women engaged in all gainful pursuits other than household labor, and even of this small balance many are engaged in work which is really domestic, but which is not so classified in the official statistics.

The small employment of women in occupations other than household labors is due, in large measure, to the imperfect development of Mexican industry, which, as yet, has not made great demands upon



the female labor supply, as well as to a popular prejudice against the labor of women. In Mexico the continental, and above all the Latin, ideal of woman prevails, which notoriously unfits her for the struggle for life and makes her dependent upon man. While these conditions are changing, and a different ideal of the relation of the sexes and of the relative position and responsibility of woman is slowly gaining ground, the preparation of the feminine part of the community for any active share in competitive work has not yet made great advances. An evidence of this is shown in the statistics of education. In 1898 there were registered in the public schools 461,929 male and 240,756 female pupils. In other words, there were but 52 female per 100 male pupils. In the private schools, the relation, as might be expected, is somewhat more favorable, there being 53,051 female as against 72,342 male pupils, or 73 female per 100 male pupils. Including schools of all sorts, the proportion of female to male pupils is as 55 to 100. This, moreover, represents a future, rather than the present, generation of workers, and is an advance over the conditions existing a score or even a dozen years ago.

As a result of the dependence of Mexican women and of the prejudice against their employment, (a) the choice of occupation to those who are obliged to earn their living is extremely restricted, and their remuneration, as a consequence, is very low. Even when they compete with men, their wages, here as elsewhere, are lower, and frequently barely exceed what is indispensably necessary to support life. Thus, in the cotton mills the ordinary female hands are paid, as a rule, from 25 to 50 cents a day in Mexican currency, or from  $12\frac{1}{2}$  to 25 cents per day in American money, which is only about 50 or 60 per cent of what is paid to the men. The wages run higher in certain cases and 75 cents per day have been paid to women, but there are also cases where the wages are not over  $12\frac{1}{2}$  cents Mexican, or  $6\frac{1}{4}$  cents American, currency per day.

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a Hitherto public opinion in Mexico has almost absolutely prohibited any respectable female from engaging in any professional or personal occupation, for any occupation or profession which would draw a woman from the seclusion of her domestic circle would entail upon her loss of caste and the general reprobation of her sex. An educated lady may devote herself to teaching the poor from motives of religious zeal, or exhibit her talents in public at a charity concert, but professionally never. Pressed by poverty, a Mexican lady will work in lace, embroidery, or other artistic labor, and sell her productions privately, or even give private lessons in music, etc.; but all the female professional teachers, artists, boarding-house keepers, etc., are foreigners, or nearly all, for of late years foreign travel, foreign education, and contact with foreigners at home, combined with the liberalizing tendency of reform laws, have somewhat modified the strictness of Mexican society in that regard. Among the Indians and lower classes in Mexico, however, the women take part promiscuously in all the labors, occupations, interests, and amusements incident to their condition in life and are neither secluded nor oppressed.—United States Consul Strother, 1885.



## LEGAL STATUS OF LABOR.

The legal status of the workman in Mexico is determined by the civil codes of the various States, Territories, and the Federal District, and the statutes passed in conformity therewith, in so far as these codes or laws are not in conflict with the rights guaranteed to the individual by the Federal constitution and the constitutions of the various States. Thus, theoretically at least, each State, by virtue of its presumptive sovereignty, is able to fix the laws which determine the relation between the employer and employee. Except in the cases where special circumstances have rendered divergencies necessary, the general legal framework is similar to that adopted by the Federal Government for the Federal District and the Territories.

The civil code of the Federal District and of the Territory of Lower California (*a*) proclaims the general bases regulating labor conditions in those regions, and the civil codes of the various States are in close conformity with the provisions of this code. The code takes up the relations of domestic service, day labor, task labor, apprenticeship, etc.

According to the civil code, domestic service is that which is rendered for remuneration to one person by another living with him. The period must be limited, since perpetual contracts are null. The contract of service is supposed to end with the completion of the purpose which is its object, so that, in the case of the hiring of wet-nurses, the contract lasts during the whole period of lactation. In case there is no express agreement as to remuneration or wages, the custom of the place determines, account being taken of the class of work and the age, sex, and aptitude of the employee. If the agreement does not relate to a certain determined service, the servant is obliged to do everything compatible with his health, state, power, aptitude, or condition. If the contract is made without fixed time, either party may conclude it at will, it being understood, however, that one week's notice shall be given by either party, although it is also understood that the employer can discharge the servant immediately by paying him one week's wages. If, on the other hand, the servant enters into an agreement to work for a certain specified time, he can not leave the service, without just cause, before the completion of the period so agreed upon.

By just causes are here understood the necessity to comply with legal obligations or obligations contracted before the present agreement, the manifest danger of some considerable harm or evil, the failure of the employer to comply with his obligations, the sickness of the servant or impossibility for him to perform the service, or, finally,

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*a*Código Civil del Distrito Federal y Territorio de la Baja California Reformado en virtud de la autorización concedida al Ejecutivo por decreto de 14 de Diciembre de 1883, México, 1899.



the change of residence of the employer to a place which does not suit the servant. If the servant leaves with just cause, he may claim all wages already earned and still due him; if he leaves without just cause, he loses the right to recover such wages, and is, moreover, liable for such damage or prejudice as may result to his employer by his illegal separation.

The employer of the domestic servant is also prohibited from discharging him without just cause, provided the agreement is for a certain specified time. By just causes are here meant the inability of the servant to perform the work agreed upon, the vice, malady, or bad deportment of the servant, or, finally, the insolvency of the employer. If the employer discharges his servant before the time contracted for, and without just cause, he is obliged to pay the wages for the whole period of the contract.

The servant is obliged to treat his employer with respect and to obey him in everything which is not illegal or not contrary to the conditions of the contract, to perform his work with loyalty and with all the diligence in his power, to take care of the things which he receives for his service and to avoid any injury to which they may be exposed, as well as to pay for the injury and prejudice which results to the employer through his (the servant's) fault. The employer, on the other hand, is obliged to pay the wages of the servant with rigorous exactitude, to refrain from imposing upon him work which will injure his health or threaten his life or which is not included in the contract, to point out his failings and, if the servant is a minor, to correct him as though he were his tutor, to indemnify him for the losses or injuries which he may suffer in his (the employer's) cause or through his (the employer's) fault, and to succor him and to cause him to be cured, at the servant's own expense, in case of any sickness, where the servant can not attend to himself or has no family or other recourse.

The contract for domestic service terminates with the death of the employer or of the servant, and neither the servant nor his heirs have a right to recover more than the wages earned. The employer may deduct from the wages of the employee such sum as shall be reasonable for injuries sustained by him through the fault of the servant, but if he fails to do so at the time of making the payment he will not have any subsequent legal action against the servant. Beyond the provisions of the civil code, the relations governing servant and master are subject to the police regulations of the particular district.

The day worker (*jornalero*)—that is, one who performs labor for another day by day in return for a certain daily remuneration which is called day wages—is obliged to perform the work for which he contracts, according to the orders and under the direction of his employer, and, in default thereof, he may be discharged before the day concludes, being paid for the time he has worked. The employer is obliged to



pay by the day or week, according to the terms of the contract; and, in case no time is specified, according to the custom of the place. If the workman is employed for a specific service, or for a definite period of time, he can not be discharged or give up service without just cause. In case the agreement is dissolved without just cause by the workman, he loses the wages which are due to him; and if by the employer, he is liable for the whole sum contracted for. If the work is interrupted by the act of God or the enemies of the State (*caso fortuito ó fuerza mayor*), the workman may receive pay for the work actually done, or for the time actually in service. The workman is responsible for the value of the tools, instruments, or other objects which are confided to his care, and which he has lost or spoiled, unless he can prove that the loss was through no fault of his.

The contract of apprenticeship made between adults, or with minors represented by adults, must be signed before two witnesses. In case the principals can not sign, it must be done for them, in their presence, by some person other than the two witnesses. The contract is null unless it fixes the term for apprenticeship.

The contract must state the time at which, and the circumstances under which, the apprentice shall commence to receive remuneration, unless the claim for remuneration shall be considered satisfied by the instruction received. The master who discharges his apprentice without just cause, before the time agreed upon, must indemnify him; if the apprentice already receives wages, he must be paid for the full unexpired term. If he has not yet received remuneration, he may be indemnified according to the decree of the court. Just causes for discharging apprentices are the same as those for discharging domestic servants. The same rule applies to the apprentice who is responsible, either directly or in the persons of those who contract for him, for any dissolution of the contract without just cause, the causes being here the same as those which permit a domestic servant to dissolve his contract. If the apprentice is a minor and is not legally represented, his master has none other than criminal action against him.

## IMMIGRATION AND COLONIZATION.

From the very inception of Mexican independence there has been cherished the constant ideal of increasing population by means of immigration. During the colonial régime the Spanish Government prohibited entrance to America to persons of other nationalities and to certain classes among the Spanish population itself. At the conclusion of the war of independence in 1821, however, Mexico had an insufficient population for its then enormous area, and steps were taken as early as 1827 in the direction of encouraging immigration. The experiment in Texas did not result to the entire advantage of the



Mexican Government, but in 1846 a bill was again presented by the secretary of foreign relations, José M. Lafragua, to encourage colonization by foreigners, which, however, resulted in nothing.

The character of the attempts to encourage immigration and the reasons for their failure may be seen from an examination of the pamphlet published by the imperial governor of Mexico during the short and tragic career of Maximilian. In this pamphlet, which is called *Mexico, Information for the Benefit of those desiring to Emigrate to that Country*, January, 1866, signed by M. F. Maury, imperial commissioner of emigration, it is stated that "the doors of the Empire are wide open," and that the Government is offering land under the most favorable terms and private citizens are offering it for nothing, in order to secure immigrants. Though even then in its last stages it was declared that "the Empire is daily gaining ground, strength, and support," and the immigrant was assured of the "dawn of a happy era of peace." At the same time he was informed that agricultural labor was very poorly paid, and that the rate of wages averaged only 25 to 37 cents per day. It was exactly these two factors, the very low wages of Mexican labor, and above all the unsettled character of the Mexican Government, that prevented any immigration on a large scale. The law passed by Maximilian's government on September 15, 1865, was very liberal. It provided (article 1) that each immigrant should receive a duly executed title of his landed estate and a certificate that it is free of mortgage; that (article 3) such property was to be free from taxes for the first year; that (article 4) immigrants might be naturalized as soon as they were settled, and (article 5) might bring with them laborers of any race whatsoever and in whatever numbers desired, although these laborers were to be subject to special protective enactments. It also provided (article 6) that the effects of immigrants, their animals, seed, agricultural implements, machines, and tools should be free from transit duties, and (article 7) that the immigrants should be exempt from military service for five years, but should form a stationary militia for their own protection. The law also confirmed the organic law of the Empire to the effect that liberty of worship should be secured to all immigrants. As will be seen later, the law of Maximilian was in many respects similar to that which is now enforced.

The cause of the failure of these attempts to incite immigration and colonization are not far to seek. Until the latter part of the nineteenth century conditions in Mexico were by no means stable, and property and even life were not always safe. The fear of confiscation by technically legal or frankly illegal means, the disturbed political conditions, and the consequent low state of industry acted as a powerful deterrent to immigration. Moreover, wages were very low, the standard of living lower, the opportunities for education or for the free exercise of a heterodox religion restricted, while at the same time the



means of communication were so bad as to place any comparison between the attractiveness of Mexico and of the United States beyond the pale of reasonable consideration. Under such circumstances the then prevailing ignorance of Mexican resources and conditions can hardly be alleged as a contributing cause to the apathy with which the country was regarded by prospective colonists.

The most earnest and effective effort yet made to colonize the country dates from a law passed in the year 1885 and still in force. This law bases the prospect of colonists upon the public lands. It has in view not only immigration, but colonization by native Mexicans, and thus contemplates in part an increase, in part merely a displacement of the population. The law bears a resemblance to the homestead laws of the American Federal Government, inasmuch as it is based upon the cession of portions of the public domain to actual cultivators of the soil.

The law provides for the exploration, measurement, and division of the vacant public lands (*terrenos baldios*) for the benefit of colonists or settlers (whether native or foreign) who solicit the land from the Government or its representatives. If the petitioners have the necessary desirable qualities they are ceded a tract of 247 acres (100 hectares). This cession is at first in the nature of a loan or deposit, but the legal title vests in the settler if he can show that he has cultivated the land, and if within a certain specified time he does not abandon the property or permit it to fall back into its native state. The petition to obtain lands is secured in Mexico from the department of public promotion (*Fomento*), and in foreign countries from the diplomatic or consular representatives or persons or companies authorized by them.

Settlers or colonists enjoy for the period of ten years exemption from military service, from all imposts except municipal taxes on real estate, and from the payment of all customs duties on the necessary utensils, agricultural machinery, etc., which are not produced in the country, as well as on animals devoted to breeding or labor. They are also exempt from export duties on the articles of their production, and in certain cases they may receive a special premium or bonus for the production of especially excellent articles or for the introduction to cultivation of new and valuable products before unknown in Mexico. For the planting of trees on the land, the privileges and exemptions before mentioned may be extended for an additional year beyond ten years for every tenth of the area devoted to such planting.

Colonizing companies may also be formed for the measurement of hitherto unsurveyed lands, and in return for this labor they are granted one-third of the land so surveyed. It is forbidden them, however, to sell the land in larger lots than 6,177 acres (2,500 hectares) or to persons not legally qualified to receive them. If a colonizing company is authorized by the Government to throw open a considerable tract of



land for settlement and fails to commence operations within three months, it must surrender all its rights. The executive may make contracts with colonizing companies or corporations, under the condition that the companies obtain a number of settlers within a given period, but the contracts between such companies and the actual settlers are subject to approbation and confirmation by the department of public promotion (*Fomento*).

The total result of the attempt to promote immigration has been inconsiderable. No great movement of labor from Europe has taken place, and the agriculture, mining, and other industries of the country have been compelled to rely practically upon the native labor force. The demand for labor, however, has rapidly increased with the increased activity in all branches of industry, and this demand for labor and the small result attained by attempting to stimulate the Indian to increased effort have caused the need for immigrants to become particularly acute and urgent. This state of affairs is keenly felt and clearly recognized by almost all of the large employers of labor, and particularly by the proprietors of estates. Representatives of this class state that the Indian population, great as it is, is by no means sufficient for the needs of agriculture, owing to the fact that a large number of Indians withdraw themselves from any regular labor and prefer to wander in the fields, forests, and mountains, obtaining a bare livelihood by the collection of various raw materials for small industries. The labor of the Indian is claimed to be more like that of a machine than like that of an intelligent man. The majority of the agricultural workers are too ignorant for the use of machines, and even the overseers and proprietors of the *haciendas* are not sufficiently intelligent to break their long established routine of bad methods and to profitably employ labor of a high quality.

"The four million Indians," says a representative of the planting class, (a) "who exist in the Mexican territory, are hardly producers. \* \* \* The Indians," he continues, "are a burden which the Mexicans must carry; without education of any kind, they are a hindrance to progress, an obstacle to our advance. Of another part of our population it may be said that, though not in the same state of ignorance as the Indians, it is still not a productive class." He further states that the territory of Mexico could contain four or five times the present population, and that the example of the United States, Argentina, and Brazil should stimulate Mexico to obtain intelligent workmen, in order to educate the natives, and that no time should be lost in this effort. "We can not become great by ourselves;" he concludes, "in order to produce more, we require the colonizing element."

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<sup>a</sup> See an article in the Boletín de la Sociedad Agrícola Mexicana, entitled Las Necesidades de Nuestra Agricultura, reproduced in El Economista Mexicano, 1900, June 22 and 29 and July 6.



The problem of inducing immigration from Europe, with which Mexico is now confronted, is one of the greatest difficulty. The would-be immigrant, unless he belongs to the class of skilled workmen, is confronted with the prospect of competition with a population with a lower standard of life than his own, and earning wages which (expressed in gold at least) are considerably below what he can earn in the home country. The wages paid to agricultural laborers in Mexico are not apt to be much of an incentive to the prospective immigrant from Germany or Italy. In a conference with a committee sent to him some months ago by the Mexican Agricultural Society, the Italian minister in Mexico stated that of the two classes of Italians who might come to Mexico—the Sicilians and the Calabrians—the first would come for a smaller salary, but would add little to the intelligence and general standard of life of the country, while the other would not come unless the agricultural wages were much higher than at present, as at certain periods of the year they earned in their own country an equivalent of \$2.50 Mexican currency per day. With regard to the solution of the labor problem in tropical Mexico, he stated that in no case could the Italian immigrant be considered as available, as the experience in Brazil had clearly shown that the Italian would not work efficiently in such climes at an altitude of less than 1,000 meters (3,281 feet) above the level of the sea. (a)

Mexico has a greater probability of obtaining immigrants from Italy, however, than from any other European country. That country, with its prolific population, is turning out immense numbers of emigrants and is peopling, to a considerable extent, the available territory in Latin America. Thus, in 1899, there was a total of 106,846 persons over 14 years of age permanently emigrating, and of these 65,206 were agriculturists or engaged in agricultural labor. What has been done in Argentina it is hoped to do in Mexico, and the chief reliance of those who desire immigration appears to be Italy. Of the total emigration from Italy, however, only a very small percentage has gone to Mexico or Central America. In 1899 the emigration to Mexico and Central America (including Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica) was only 606, of whom 500 were permanent. Of these 606, 316 came from Campania (281 from Salerno and 35 from Naples), 11 from Abruzzi, 25 from Piedmont, and 53 from Lombardy. In 1898 the emigration amounted to but 568 permanent and 66 temporary emigrants. Of this total of 634 (both permanent and temporary), 461 came from Campania (of whom 256 were from Naples and 204 from Salerno), 52 from Abruzzi, 44 from Piedmont, and 20 from Lombardy. (b)

a See *El Economista Mexicano*, Mexico, July 13, 1901, pages 279, 280, as reproduced from the *Boletín de la Sociedad Agrícola Mexicana*.

b *Statistica della Emigrazione Italiana, avvenuta negli anni 1898 e 1899*, Roma 1900. Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio, Direzione Generale della Statistica.



In order that there should be a large emigration to Mexico from any country, such as Italy, it would be necessary not only to establish a superiority in Mexican conditions over those of Italy, but equally to establish the same superiority over all other countries which are equally accessible to the Italian emigrant. This, at the present time, it seems impossible to do. The great bulk of Italian emigration to Latin America has gone to Argentina, which offers great attractions to prospective emigrants. Thus during the period from 1857 to 1899, inclusive, there was a total immigration to Argentina (first-class passengers excluded) of 2,564,391 persons, and a total emigration (first-class passengers excluded) of 882,596, leaving a total net immigration for the forty-three years of 1,681,795. Of the 1,850,226 who arrived in Argentina directly from over sea, disregarding 714,165 persons who came by way of Montevideo, 1,146,407, or about five-eighths, were Italians, 340,696 Spaniards, 159,476 French, 33,610 English, 29,674 Austrian, 24,518 Swiss, 27,074 Germans, 18,965 Belgians, and 69,806 from other countries. (a) The net immigration during this period was almost as great (97 per cent) as the total population of the country in 1869, and was about 43 per cent as great as the entire population in 1895. The attraction of Argentina consists in its very large area, which is about two and one-third times that of Mexico, and its sparse population, which is less than one-third that of Mexico, and the great demands both for skilled and for unskilled labor, which the growing industry of that country requires. The advantage of Argentina also consists in its almost exclusively European population and in the absence of large masses of Indians with a low standard of life and an apathy to progress; (b) while the density of population in Mexico is probably over 20 (officially 16.4 in 1895), that of Argentina is but 2.2, and the population of the latter country could be multiplied nine-fold before it attained the density of population of Mexico. In consequence, Argentina affords the immense advantage "in that the immigrant immediately finds a good and secure position, no matter where, since all parts of the republic are about equal and for some time have maintained a normal level." (c) "As a matter of fact, agricultural labor engaged during the whole year (in Argentina) is paid 72 francs (\$13.90) gold per month and keep; the casual workers receive higher wages, according to circumstances, either with or without keep." (c) It may easily be seen that these wages are far in excess of what are paid in Mexico.

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*a* Anuario de Estadística, 1899, Volume II, pages 155-157. Buenos Ayres, 1900.

*b* See Emilio Daireux, *Vida y Costumbres en el Plata*. Buenos Ayres and Paris, 1888. See particularly chapter on *Las Razas Destruídas*. Also *La République Argentine*, Wiener (Chas.), Ministère des Affaires Étrangères. Paris, 1899.

*c* See report of the Mexican consul-general at Genoa, Italy, on *La Emigración de Italia*, reproduced in *El Economista Mexicano*, Mexico, June 2, 1900.



In view of the small immigration of Europeans to Mexico and the imperious demands of tropical agriculture, the planters, constructors of railways, and other employers of labor in Mexico have turned their attention to China as the best source for obtaining large numbers of unskilled laborers. Hitherto the immigration of Chinese has not been very extensive or entirely successful, and it was particularly with the object of facilitating immigration that a "treaty of amity, trade, and navigation between Mexico and China" was concluded in Washington, December 14, 1899, between the representatives of the Chinese and Mexican governments in that city. (a) This treaty declared (article 4) that "the Chinese subjects shall be at liberty to travel through all the territory of Mexico as long as they conduct themselves peaceably and do not violate the laws and regulations of the country," but that the high contracting parties (article 5) "disapprove of every act of violence or trickery which might be committed in the ports of China, or anywhere else, for the purpose of expatriating Chinese subjects against their will." It also provided (article 12) that the engagement by contract of citizens or subjects of one country as laborers, servants, or the like, in plantations, mills, shops, business establishments, or private families in the other country, shall be subject to rules to be established by mutual agreement between both high contracting parties. According to the same treaty Chinese subjects were granted the protection of the Mexican courts on the same terms as Mexicans themselves, or the subjects or citizens of the most favored foreign nation.

While the Mexican Government is thus clearing the way for a possible immigration of Chinese, there is, on the whole, a well-marked tendency in certain quarters to deprecate a yellow invasion. "To populate our country with Chinese or with a larger number of Indians would be of little value" (*poco fructuoso*) says one author, on the ground that the immigrants which come should be intelligent and should act as a spur to the native workmen. (b) In another article from *La Revista Económica y Financiera*, published in La Paz, Bolivia, and quoted in Mexico with apparent approbation, the question of Chinese immigration is also treated in no favorable manner. (c) The effi-

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a Published in the *Diario Oficial*, July 24, 1900, and in the *Boletín Oficial de la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores*, Volume X, No. 4, August 15, 1900. The treaty was drawn up in Spanish, Chinese, and English.

b *Las Necesidades de Nuestra Agricultura*, cited on page 82.

c *La Inmigración Asiática en América*, *El Economista Mexicano*, Mexico, February 3, 1900, page 46. The author states that the need of hands in the departments of Santa Cruz and Beni, in Bolivia, resulted in arbitrary measures to secure laborers for the rubber plantations, and that since then the first colony of Japanese was introduced. The Japanese colonists were held to be good, although proud (*altivo*) but rather dear, demanding £3 (\$14.60) per month, with board and clothing. The Chinese, on the other hand, are cheaper. The problem of Chinese immigration is similar, in Mexico, to that which exists in Bolivia.



ciency of the Chinaman as a workman is not called into question in these discussions, but it is generally considered that he will form an undesirable element in the population, and that the native Indians will be unable to compete with him. It is also feared, in certain quarters, that the occasional flight of the Chinese from Mexico across the Rio Grande might possibly lead to somewhat less cordial relations between the United States and Mexico, owing to the fact that the immigration of Chinese is prohibited in the United States, while the doors of Mexico have been open to them. While not desiring to hazard a prediction, evidences are not wanting which point to a larger emigration of Chinese to the hot lands of Mexico in order to take over the work of cultivating the soil.

At all events, Asiatic emigration on a large scale will more likely occur than will immigration from Europe, unless special inducements are offered the latter. Despite the large demand for labor wages in Mexico are very low, and the increasing demand for labor does not seem to have had a proportional effect in increasing the remuneration of labor, when expressed in gold. The Mexican people appear to be on the horns of a dilemma, since it appears that the large body of labor can not improve until immigration takes place, and that immigration can not take place until the condition of labor is improved.<sup>(a)</sup> What may occur within twenty or thirty years can not now be foreseen, but if it is desired, at the present time or in the immediate future, to attract great bodies of European emigrants, it will be necessary to offer inducements far more attractive than at present. To effect such a displacement of labor it would be necessary for the Government to make free gifts of land or else for the Government to defray the expense, or part thereof, of the passage, and it would, above all, be necessary to establish a general agency and emigration bureau in various parts of Europe, as is done by Chile.<sup>(b)</sup> The immigration to Chile is yet small, but large sums are being expended with the idea of encouraging it.

While, however, no great immigration of unskilled labor may be anticipated, it is probable that a certain number of foreign workmen will always be in demand for the more skilled occupations. In the Republic there is quite a number of Americans, Spaniards, Frenchmen, Germans, and Italians employed in occupations which require a

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<sup>a</sup> This dilemma is somewhat similar to that which confronted the Mexican Government a generation ago, when the railroads leading to the United States could not be built without the country being richer and more peaceable and when the wealth and security of the country could not be advanced without the railroads. In this case the Government obviated the whole difficulty by itself assuming the risks of the operation in the form of a railroad guaranty. The analogy in the present case is not difficult to find.

<sup>b</sup> For the Chilean attempts to induce immigration see Nicolás Vega, *La Inmigración Europea en Chile, 1882 to 1895*. Agencia General de Colonización del Gobierno de Chile, Paris, 1896.



certain degree of skill, and the demand for such labor as can not well be done by Mexicans, while not great, is at all events intense. According to the reports of the Italian minister in Mexico, the field for employment of comparatively cheap Italian labor is very good, especially if the persons who go there, whether agriculturists, horticulturists, miners, railway employees, or persons engaged in trade, are good workmen and specialists. The field, however, is not entirely attractive, since the wages at start are not very high, and all reports agree that no one should be encouraged to go to Mexico unless he is satisfied to commence with a small salary and to endure discomforts, if not privations, to which he may not have been accustomed at home. There is demand, however, for mechanical operatives—blacksmiths, masons, stonecutters, electricians, and other persons engaged in skilled work of any sort.

The opportunities for skilled labor in Mexico are treated in a number of books, publications, and official reports. The most recent and probably the best statement, however, is to be found in the excellent reports of the Italian minister in Mexico. He says that in order to find work in Mexico it is advisable that every immigrant provide himself with a legal certificate of his good conduct. He especially warns recent inmates of prisons or poorhouses, or persons who are too old, or who suffer from chronic diseases, from entering into a life which will be full of fatigues, since such persons will probably be repatriated, and become thereby a greater burden to the mother country. "As a result of special circumstances, relating to recent events, the Italian emigration has here lost much of the esteem" which it formerly enjoyed. In Mexico the preference is for workmen from Venice, Lombardy, and Piedmont. He warns intending emigrants of the necessary privations and troubles at first, and states specifically that wine is dear, and that it is not easy to get it good and wholesome. If the intending emigrant is married, and his wife is a good housekeeper, it will be an advantage to have her, especially if she is adept at washing, ironing, and sewing. Finally, he points out the success that will attend immigrants who are honest, patient, industrious, economical, and persevering.<sup>(a)</sup>

There can be no question as to the inadvisability of Americans emigrating to Mexico in large numbers. All authorities agree that there is no field in Mexico under present conditions for great numbers of Americans, and the consular representatives of the United States have repeatedly warned Americans against going to Mexico without money, without knowledge of the country, and without the prospect of a permanent and well-paid position. The difficulties presented by

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<sup>a</sup> See Bolletino del Ministero degli Affari Esteri Parte Amministrativa e Notiziario. Rome, January, 1899, August, 1900, January, 1901. See also Gli Italiani nel Messico, November, 1900.



difference in language, race, traditions, and training may be overcome by intelligent Americans, and where the competition is one of industry and skill and not merely of wages the American is usually able to more than hold his own with the native employee. While there are opportunities, however, for specially trained workmen, particularly where they can obtain positions in advance, the opportunities for unskilled labor are practically nil. The danger of going to Mexico without any definite plans and merely with the desire to obtain unskilled work of any sort can hardly be exaggerated.

### CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY.

Generally speaking, labor in Mexico is cheap, inefficient, unintelligent, and untrustworthy. Wages of labor are considerably lower than those prevailing in western Europe, and very much lower than those current in the United States. The natural aptitude of the Mexican and even of the pure Indian is far from despicable, but the mass of the population is untrained to economic thought or industrial action, and there is a general apathy and disinclination to take thought of the morrow and a general satisfaction with the prevailing low standard of life. The diet of the workman in Mexico is greatly restricted, both in variety and amount, and in great masses of the population is so deficient as to cause malnutrition and chronic anæmia. The agricultural laborer is more particularly lacking in energy, and while his endurance is great, his disposition is so lethargic, and there is so studied a slowness about his movements, as to render his labor ineffective and consequently dear.

As a general rule, the Mexican workman is not skillful in the use of machinery, and although the race possesses great aptitude, it does not seem to be preeminently successful in the invention or adoption of modern industrial methods. The intelligence of the laborer is in many places at so low an ebb that work which could be more economically performed by machinery is frequently carried on expensively by low-priced human labor. In some cases machinery has been introduced and subsequently abandoned owing to the lack of skill of the employees and the difficulties and delays in the way of having the machines repaired. Even in purely manual labor, except in certain special branches where they possess extraordinary skill, the workmen are far from adept, and uneconomical methods are frequently continued in use owing to the traditional hold which they have upon the population. The greatest drawback to Mexican labor, however, is the low standard of life in the lower classes of the population. This, although apparently improving at a slow rate, is not advancing with sufficient rapidity to render comparison with conditions in western Europe and the United States admissible. The food, clothing, and



shelter absolutely required for the maintenance of life form, in many parts of the country, no sufficient incentive for continued and strenuous effort, and in some other portions of the country the food of the human laborers is practically identical with that of the live stock, and their shelter inferior. The influence of three centuries of Spanish rule, during a large portion of which the native population was greatly oppressed, has been in the direction of preventing the growth of a well-equipped industrial type and of ingraining into the Indian character certain defects, such as improvidence, proneness to drunkenness, dissimulation, and petty thieving, which render them more or less unfit as effective laborers.

The improvidence of a great proportion of Mexican labor is to be observed more particularly in the tropical portions of that country, and the unsteadiness of the labor there and the difficulty of obtaining an adequate and regular supply have led to the existence of a system of labor based upon the principle of indebtedness. This system, which works to the complete satisfaction of neither peon nor planter, has not been done away with owing to the difficulty of satisfying the demand for labor in any other way. The result of this system is in some respects similar to that of the adoption of legal slavery, since it rests upon the principle of forced labor, requires a large expenditure of money as an initial labor cost, robs the workman of initiative and providence, and is quite expensive in the item of supervision.

The conditions which have been herein described are, however, now changing. There was a gradual improvement during the Spanish régime from the intolerable conditions existing immediately after the conquest, and considerable progress had been made by the beginning of the nineteenth century. The acquisition of independence by the Mexicans laid the basis for a still better condition of affairs, but little, if any, direct benefit resulted immediately. The marked improvement in the condition of the laboring class actually dates from the victory of the Liberal party, and more particularly from the accession to the Presidency of the present incumbent, Gen. Porfirio Diaz. Within the last twenty-five years peace has been established on a stable basis, security has been maintained, brigandage eradicated, interstate taxes abolished, finances reformed, railroads constructed, and industry, agriculture, and mining established on a stable, permanent basis.

Coincidentally with this material progress there has occurred in Mexico a great advance in education and in everything pertaining to the moral and intellectual advance of the people, and as a result of this progress the condition of the laboring population throughout the country has improved in security, in legal protection, in opportunities for labor, in regularity of employment, and in the amount of wages.

Perhaps the most potent single factor in improving the condition of labor has been the introduction of railways. The influence so exerted



has been manifold: First, in stimulating mining, agriculture, and manufacturing by establishing foreign markets and thus creating a demand for labor; second, by strengthening the central government and securing to the laborer in greater measure the protection of the law; third, by permitting the employee to change his place of residence, and consequently his master, whenever a better opportunity presents itself to him. The introduction of railways has still further influenced workmen by spreading information of the outer world and breaking up the narrow provincialism of small rural centers, and, lastly, by creating an immediate demand for labor throughout the regions traversed. The wages of agricultural labor are higher in sections of the country reached by railroads, both on these accounts and on account of the higher price of food products which prevail. In consequence of the railroad there has grown to be, in many parts of the plateau, so great a demand for labor that wages have risen accordingly and the condition of the laborer has been improved.

The general bettering of the condition of labor has been twofold: First, the gradual, almost imperceptible, raising of the general level; second, the change from unskilled to skilled labor and the selection of persons for the higher grade and higher class occupations. Just to what extent the general level has risen it is somewhat difficult to state. It is claimed by one authority that "the peon or Mexican day laborer has advanced much more than the same class in various European countries from the French Revolution until the middle of our (the nineteenth) century," and he mentions Ireland, Italy, and Spain as the most patent examples. On the other hand, the American minister, Mr. M. W. Ransom, stated that, as compared with ten years before, it might "safely be stated that, as regards skilled labor, there has been a slight increase both in the amount paid and in the demand, while, as regards unskilled labor, the conditions may be said to be substantially the same." (*a*)

From such statistics as we possess, faulty as they are, it would appear that the money wages of even the lowest paid employees have advanced during the last twenty years, when expressed in silver. If expressed in gold, the wages would show an absolute decrease for the whole country; but it must be remembered that prices have not by any means fully reacted to the depreciation of silver and that gold wages are therefore not determinate. The increase of wages, however, when reduced to a silver basis, is not decisive, although there are many portions of the country in which such an advance has been perfectly clear.

The second method by which laboring conditions have been improved is by the change from unskilled to skilled labor and by the attraction

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*a*See Money and Prices in Foreign Countries, etc., Volume XIII, Washington, 1896. Report by M. W. Ransom, United States minister, on Mexico, pages 111-150.



of labor to manufacturing. This has been almost in the nature of a capillary attraction, since the number of persons who have engaged in more or less skilled occupations is small in proportion to the total population of the country. The cardinal feature of labor is still its great and undue preponderance of unskilled labor, which is a sign of a low industrial development. The displacement of this unskilled by skilled labor, however, as a result of the introduction of machinery, can be shown in both a positive and a negative manner—positively, in the increase of skilled labor; negatively, in the partial or complete cessation of various forms of socially unprofitable labor. The growth of manufacture is an evidence of this evolution and is, in turn, aiding that development. Every year new industries spring up, including cotton mills, workshops and foundries of all sorts, breweries, etc., to say nothing of railways themselves, which call into requisition large numbers of skilled employees, while other occupations formerly requiring large bodies of men are now falling into desuetude. The occupation of carriers between different States still employs many men, but the demand is not comparable with that of former years, especially in view of the immense increase in internal commerce. The burro, or donkey, still competes with the railroads on short distances, but for a long haul the steam horse easily outruns its humble competitor, and the muleteer is now relegated to a lesser sphere of activity and a lower position in the national economy. The driver of the mule car is slowly giving way to the trained motorman, and before long the vast army of *cargadores*, or porters, will go the way which in other cities has been trod by the *leñadores* and *aguadores*—the “hewers of wood and drawers of water.”

While this displacement of unskilled by skilled laborers is necessary to the economic and political progress of Mexico, and an indispensable condition of its future healthful evolution, it is naturally a matter of public policy not to permit the development to proceed too rapidly, since the powers of adaptation of the great uneducated masses are small, and the sudden displacement and enforced nonemployment of great bodies of men would work social harm and might possibly evoke political disturbances. The administration, however, is steadily promoting a gradual change in this direction, and an intelligent body of skilled laborers is growing up and contending with foreigners for the better paid positions. This development can be clearly perceived working itself out in wage contests. While at their inception most new enterprises import their skilled labor or draw it from the resident population of foreign birth, it is not a long while before the high-priced foreigner is displaced by the native workman. The natives are frequently considered less reliable in ordinary times, but are usually more docile and subordinate, not unintelligent, and are willing to work for less pay than that demanded by foreign workmen.



In Mexico it may be said that the improvement in the conditions and remuneration of labor have been a result rather of outside influences than of any agitation or combined effort on the part of the employees, and the indications for the immediate future point to the same influences working in the same direction. A class consciousness on the part of the great mass of workers, whether agricultural or industrial, can hardly be said to exist in the Republic, and no representation of such a class is sought in the arbitration of wages or in the councils of the nation. There is no conflict between labor and capital, no wage contest on a large scale between organized employees and employers of large masses of labor. Both wages and other conditions of labor are still largely a matter of tradition, and the improvement that is taking place appears to be due almost entirely to forces outside the great masses of workmen themselves.

The great levers by which the labor of the country can be raised to a higher level are universal education, both academic and industrial, European immigration, and the introduction of machinery. The national government has already made great sacrifices in the cause of education and has devoted much time and money to the furtherance of this aim. Laws making education compulsory have been passed and schools established in all parts of the country, and, while free compulsory education has not yet been rigorously carried into effect, progress in this line has been very great. The number of scholars is rapidly increasing, and the effect, both on the literacy of the population and its general adaptability for work of a high grade, is being increasingly felt.

The introduction of machinery is also effecting a change in the character of labor by supplanting the unskilled workman by one possessing greater skill. The importance of such a change must be felt to a greater extent in agriculture than in any other industry, since at the present time Mexico is, and probably for an indefinite period to come must continue to be, a country preponderatingly engaged in the cultivation of the soil. The peon, frequently of pure Indian blood, shows a surprising tenacity in his adherence to old and bad methods of cultivating, and it is a common complaint that the administrators and representatives of absentee owners of *haciendas* do not take up with modern improvements as rapidly as might be desired. While the crude methods, however, still prevail, the importation of agricultural machinery, especially of American make, is increasing by leaps and bounds, and the substitution of machinery for hand labor is making progress. Its introduction, however, is largely handicapped by the high price of fuel, which has hindered, to an extent which is hard to appreciate, a rapid improvement in labor conditions. With labor at its present cost and with fuel at a very high price, the advantage of



using machinery is not so great as it would otherwise be. (a) In Mexico the question is frequently one of coal *versus* corn, or, in other words, of food for machines or of food for men, and in a vast number of cases where machinery would be used in the United States the work is still performed by human labor. The result of this state of affairs, as is evidenced by the rate of wages, is a tremendous waste and misapplication of human labor. The tendency, however, is evidently in the direction of an increase in machinery, both in agricultural and industrial pursuits, and the substitution of fuel-driven machines for the work of muscles, while, at the same time, industry is becoming organized on a larger and consequently more economical scale.

The industrial progress of Mexico, which it is here impossible to sketch, is so marked that the demand for new and more efficient labor, which is already increasing, will inevitably continue to grow. The progress of the laboring class would appear to be far better assured by an increasing demand for labor of a high degree of efficiency than by mere insufficiency of labor of a low grade, such as exists in certain tropical agricultural regions of the country.

The question of European immigration is rendered somewhat difficult by the low rate of wages now prevailing. Until these wages increase, or until special advantages are offered to prospective emigrants sufficiently attractive to cause them to prefer Mexico to other portions of Latin America, immigration from Europe will not be great. With the advance in industry, however, a slow and gradual progress will be made in this direction, and immigration of skilled workmen and the building up of a body of efficient workers at home will take place; and this development, although slow at first, will be increasingly rapid. No great immigration of Europeans can be expected, however, until wages have advanced to a higher point. The question of Asiatic immigration is one of an entirely different nature, and if immigration of this nature takes place on a large scale it will be for the purpose of increasing the labor supply rather than with the idea of improving it. The conditions are very different in Mexico from those existing in the United States, and it is somewhat difficult to predict the exact result of the importation of coolies to the hot lands of Mexico. The problem of Asiatic immigration is one of race intermixture or race contests, but it seems probable that unless the tropical labor problem becomes easier in the future there will be a strong

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aIn the City of Mexico the price of bituminous coal of good quality averages about \$20 per ton, or about 9 mills per pound. The wages of unskilled labor such as that, for instance, employed in digging sewers, amount to 62½ cents, so that taking the single item of fuel alone, the daily wages of one man are equal to the price of only about 70 pounds of coal. In a Northern city of the United States the wages of an unskilled laborer would amount, roughly speaking, to the wholesale price of over 1,000 pounds of bituminous coal. This comparison is rough, but perhaps suggestive.



demand on the part of many planters to introduce vast bodies of Asiatic workmen.

Upon the whole the most encouraging view of Mexican labor is to be obtained by considering not the actual conditions, but the probable effect of tendencies now at work. These tendencies appear to be almost entirely in the direction of an improvement in the conditions of the laboring population, and while the progress which has been made has been exaggerated by many writers, and while the real wages of the population have not increased as rapidly as many persons have stated, there can be no doubt that all the tendencies at work are favoring the growth of an independent and intelligent working class. The indispensable condition to its future progress is peace and a strong, intelligent government. The progress which has been made has been achieved in less than a generation, and although the work of uplifting the whole population to the standard of western Europe is a herculean task, the progress already made renders it not improbable that the result will be achieved.



# THE NEGROES OF CINCLARE CENTRAL FACTORY AND CALUMET PLANTATION, LOUISIANA.

BY J. BRADFORD LAWS.

The present study was suggested by those made under the direction of the United States Commissioner of Labor, "A series of investigations of small, well-defined groups of Negroes, in various parts of the country," as set forth in Bulletin No. 14 of the Department of Labor, January, 1898.

The localities chosen for study were Cinclare Central Factory and Calumet Plantation. They are regarded as representative of the conditions on all the sugar plantations in Louisiana. The two places are, however, quite differently situated both as to geographical position and conditions. In order to understand better the local conditions a brief sketch of each neighborhood is desirable.

## CINCLARE CENTRAL FACTORY.

Cinclare Central Factory is located at Cinclare, West Baton Rouge Parish, La., on the west bank of the Mississippi River and about 5 miles below Baton Rouge, the capital of the State. The cultivation of sugar cane, cotton, and some rice, and a little stock raising, are the only occupations of the inhabitants of West Baton Rouge Parish.

The plantation has about 1 mile frontage on the river and is about 4 miles in depth. About two-thirds of this land is in cultivation. Besides Cinclare plantation proper there are two plantations, known as Cinclare additions, which together are about one-half the size of Cinclare plantation and about 1 mile distant, are owned by the same proprietor, and are under the same management. These two places are included in all cases in this investigation as part of Cinclare Central Factory and its plantation. Silvery plantation, about 7 miles farther up the river and about 5 miles inland, is also included as part of Cinclare Central Factory and its plantation unless otherwise stated. All these places are sugar plantations and all send their sugar cane, when cut, to the factory at Cinclare, where it is ground and manufactured into sugar.

Cinclare Central Factory, as its name implies, is a central factory, only one-fifth of the cane which is ground there being raised on the place, the rest coming from different plantations within a radius of about 75 miles by the Texas and Pacific Railroad, which runs through Cinclare. The factory is one of the largest and best-equipped modern



sugar factories in the State. This somewhat changes the character of the population, as there are more men working in or about the factory than if it were a plantation factory and not a central factory. About 80 per cent of the population of Cinclare are Negroes, the manager, overseers, engineers, and skilled workmen and their families being the only white persons on the place.

### CALUMET PLANTATION.

Calumet plantation is in Parish St. Mary, La., on Bayou Teche, about 4 miles from Patterson. Patterson is the chief city of the parish and the center of the lumbering industry for that district. Lumbering and the cultivation of sugar cane are the chief occupations of the inhabitants of the parish.

Calumet is a true plantation, all the cane that is ground in the sugar-house being raised on the place, except in exceptional cases, so that here there are more field hands and fewer factory hands employed than at Cinclare.

The character of the Negroes, who compose about 90 per cent of the total population of Calumet plantation, is also different from that of the Negroes of Cinclare. At Calumet a few of the old French Negroes and some of their descendants are still found. It is said that the dangerous Negroes from all parts of the South were brought to the Teche and sold there during slavery times, as such constituted the low-priced Negroes demanded by the Teche planters, whose overseers were a peculiarly fearless lot. If this be so, it means that a large proportion of the present Negroes there are from bad stock, and this must be taken into account when comparing them with the population of the rest of the State. There have been no great number of colored people permanently imported since the civil war—only a few each from Tennessee, North and South Carolina, and Georgia.

The Negroes of Cinclare, on the other hand, are of the ordinary run of Negro stock and not descendants of a particularly vicious lot. Migration is easier, also, on the Mississippi River, and the Negroes are not so confined to one district as on the Teche, where about the only means of communication with the rest of the State is by the Southern Pacific Railroad.

For purposes of comparison and because of the excellence of the plan, this study follows as nearly as possible the order of the study of The Negroes of Farmville, Va., by Dr. W. E. B. DuBois, Department of Labor Bulletin, No. 14; that of The Negroes of Sandy Spring, Md., by Dr. W. T. Thom, Department of Labor Bulletin, No. 32, and that of The Negroes of Litwalton, Va., by Dr. W. T. Thom, Department of Labor Bulletin, No. 37.

The materials for this study were collected by the writer in July and August, 1900, and are supplemented and corrected by some data obtained in April, 1901. Having special advantages and being known



to the Negroes, he had no trouble in collecting the necessary data, except that the Negroes were a little shy at first, not knowing to what use the data were intended to be put.

The following questions were asked each Negro:

- |                                |                                    |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Head of family (name)?         | 8. Able to read or write?          |
| 1. Number in family?           | 9. Occupation?                     |
| 2. Relation to head of family? | 10. Wages per day?                 |
| 3. Sex?                        | 11. Mother of how many children?   |
| 4. Race?                       | 12. Number of children now living? |
| 5. Age (nearest birthday)?     | 13. First child?                   |
| 6. Conjugal condition?         | 14. Whereabouts of children?       |
| 7. Place of birth?             | 15. Defective?                     |

There was little difficulty in obtaining answers to all the questions except the fifth, which many were unable to answer, partly for the reason that some of them had been slaves and, for purposes of trade, had not been allowed to know their age. Still it is thought that they answered as well as a body of whites could who were equally illiterate. The ninth and tenth questions were obtained from the books of the employers, so those results are perfectly accurate.

There are no special exceptions to make so as to put the figures on the same basis as those for Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville.

## AGE, SEX, AND BIRTHPLACE OF NEGRO POPULATION.

The total number of Negroes of whom record was taken was 301, located as follows:

Cinclare and additions.....	145
Silvery .....	57
Calumet .....	99
Total .....	301

Quite a number of those who were working on the plantations at the time did not live there and they are not included in this investigation.

Taking the Negroes of Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet as shown in the following table, we find that there are 181 males and 120 females—a proportion of 663 females to 1,000 males. This is 147.2 females per 1,000 males, or over 18 per cent, less than the showing for Litwalton, where the proportion of 810.2 females to every 1,000 males was considered remarkable. It likewise shows a very different order of things as compared with Sandy Spring, where there were 1,053 females to every 1,000 males, and Farmville, where there were 1,048 females to every 1,000 males, and is very much below the general average for the United States, 952.8 females to every 1,000 males.

It must, however, be remembered that these observations were taken at the time of year when the number of laborers employed is the smallest, and that the families usually on the places were not all there. The figures indicate a large immigration of males, and this is



only natural, for they are the only ones who can find work on the plantations in the months of July and August, which are near the end of the cultivating season and before the grinding season. The Negroes are migrating or cultivating their own little patches of ground during that season also. The women are at their homes in other parts of the State, and in fact migrate almost as much as the men, moving from place to place at their own pleasure, for few of them have very binding ties. This migration of both sexes is becoming more and more noticeable, and will undoubtedly play a large part in the future of the race.

The following is a table of the number of Negroes, by sex and age periods:

NUMBER OF NEGROES ON CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET PLANTATIONS, FROM WHOM REPORTS WERE OBTAINED, BY AGE PERIODS AND SEX, 1900.

Age periods.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Age periods.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 1 year .....	1	3	4	50 to 59 years.....	2	2	4
1 to 9 years .....	24	28	52	60 to 69 years.....	5	1	6
10 to 19 years .....	40	26	66	70 to 79 years.....	2	.....	2
20 to 29 years .....	53	32	85	Age not reported..	16	19	35
30 to 39 years .....	25	4	29	Total.....	181	120	301
40 to 49 years .....	13	5	18				

Over 10 per cent of the Negroes did not report their age, which is a much larger percentage than in either Litwalton, Sandy Spring, or Farmville. A good many of these were undoubtedly over 50 years of age. Some who had been slaves were never allowed to know their age and others could not remember. There are 116 males of voting age. For sake of comparison the tables for Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville are added:

NEGROES ON CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET PLANTATIONS, AND IN LITWALTON, VA., SANDY SPRING, MD., AND FARMVILLE, VA., FROM WHOM REPORTS WERE OBTAINED, BY AGE PERIODS AND SEX.

[This table does not include 65 persons at Sandy Spring and 75 at Farmville, mostly women in domestic service.]

Age periods.	Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet, 1900.			Litwalton, 1901.			Sandy Spring, 1899.			Farmville, 1897.		
	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
Under 1 year..	1	3	4	2	4	6	8	17	25	12	12	24
1 to 9 years....	24	28	52	43	45	88	125	124	249	127	150	277
10 to 19 years..	40	26	66	52	42	94	107	112	219	182	147	329
20 to 29 years..	53	32	85	42	23	65	47	61	108	87	101	188
30 to 39 years..	25	4	29	20	21	41	41	45	86	53	67	120
40 to 49 years..	13	5	18	21	16	37	40	34	74	47	55	102
50 to 59 years..	2	2	4	12	9	21	27	22	49	44	52	96
60 to 69 years..	5	1	6	10	3	13	21	17	38	23	24	47
70 to 79 years..	2	.....	2	3	4	7	8	8	16	14	15	29
80 to 89 years..	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	2	3	8	11	3	3	6
90 to 100 years..	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	2	1	.....	1
100 years or over.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1
Age not reported .....	16	19	35	9	8	17	8	10	18	4	1	5
Total....	181	120	301	216	175	391	436	459	895	598	627	1,225



From this table the percentages in different age periods are computed and an opportunity is given to compare these with the ones obtained for Litwalton, Sandy Spring, Farmville, the Negro population of the United States, the whole population of the United States, and the populations of three foreign countries:

PER CENT IN DIFFERENT AGE PERIODS OF NEGROES ON CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET PLANTATIONS, IN LITWALTON, VA., SANDY SPRING, MD., AND FARMVILLE, VA., AND OF TOTAL POPULATION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

Age periods.	Negroes of Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet.	Negroes of Litwalton.	Negroes of Sandy Spring.	Negroes of Farmville.	Colored population of the United States. <sup>a</sup>	Total population of the United States.	Population of—		
							Germany.	Ireland.	France.
Under 10 years ....	21.05	26.37	31.24	24.57	28.22	24.28	24.2	20.8	17.5
10 to 19 years .....	24.81	25.07	24.97	26.86	25.18	21.70	20.7	23.4	17.4
20 to 29 years .....	31.96	16.97	12.31	15.35	17.40	18.25	16.2	16.2	16.3
30 to 39 years .....	10.90	10.71	9.81	9.79	11.26	13.48	12.7	10.8	13.8
40 to 49 years .....	6.77	9.66	8.44	8.32	7.89	9.45	10.4	9.8	12.3
50 to 59 years .....	1.50	5.48	5.59	7.84	4.92	6.38	7.8	8.5	10.1
60 to 69 years .....	2.26	3.39	4.33	3.84	2.88	3.94	5.2	6.0	7.6
70 years or over....	.75	2.35	3.31	3.43	2.25	2.52	2.8	4.5	5.0
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.0	100.0	100.0

<sup>a</sup> Persons of Negro descent, Chinese, Japanese, and civilized Indians.

Here again is a very clear example of the immigration of Negroes, especially between the ages of 20 and 40, the most active part of life and the most desirable age on plantations. As in Sandy Spring and Farmville, the number of children under 15 years of age is increased by the habit parents or widowed persons have of going off and leaving their children with grandparents or relatives, to be taken care of while they roam around to their heart's desire.

The following statistics as to place of birth show that 248 were born within the State and 53, or 17.6 per cent, without the State:

Louisiana .....	248	North Carolina .....	2
Mississippi .....	23	South Carolina .....	1
Virginia .....	8	Maryland .....	1
Texas .....	5	United States of Colombia, South	
Kentucky .....	4	America .....	1
Tennessee .....	3		
Georgia .....	3	Total .....	301
Alabama .....	2		

During the grinding season, when more labor is employed, the proportion of those born outside the State is greatly increased by the immigration of extra laborers from the neighboring States and even from greater distances.

CONJUGAL CONDITION, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS.

In the following table of the 137 males over 15 years of age who reported, 38, or 27.74 per cent, were single; 89, or 64.96 per cent, were married, and 6, or 4.38 per cent, were widowed. The remaining 4, or 2.92 per cent, reported themselves as permanently separated from



their wives. There were 80 women over 15 years of age reported, of whom 18, or 22.50 per cent, were single; 50, or 62.50 per cent, were married; 5, or 6.25 per cent, were widowed, and 7, or 8.75 per cent, were permanently separated. Of the males and females reported as separated there was not a single case of legal divorce.

CONJUGAL CONDITION, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, OF THE NEGROES OF CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET, 1900.

Age periods.	Males.				Females.				Total.
	Single.	Married.	Wid-owed.	Sepa-rated.	Single.	Married.	Wid-owed.	Sepa-rated.	
15 to 19 years .....	21	.....	.....	.....	11	6	.....	.....	38
20 to 29 years .....	14	35	2	2	5	23	.....	4	85
30 to 39 years .....	1	23	.....	1	.....	4	.....	.....	29
40 to 49 years .....	.....	12	1	.....	.....	5	.....	.....	18
50 to 59 years .....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	4
60 to 69 years .....	.....	3	2	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	6
70 to 79 years .....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
Age not reported ..	2	12	1	1	2	11	4	2	35
Total .....	38	89	6	4	18	50	5	7	217

CONJUGAL CONDITION, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, OF THE NEGROES OF LITWALTON, VA., SANDY SPRING, MD., AND FARMVILLE, VA.

LITWALTON, 1901.

Age periods.	Males.				Females.				Total.
	Single.	Mar-ried.	Wid-owed.	Sepa-rated.	Single.	Mar-ried.	Wid-owed.	Sepa-rated.	
15 to 19 years .....	22	.....	.....	.....	18	1	.....	.....	41
20 to 29 years .....	33	8	1	.....	2	20	1	.....	65
30 to 39 years .....	1	16	3	.....	2	19	.....	.....	41
40 to 49 years .....	2	17	1	1	.....	12	2	2	37
50 to 59 years .....	1	9	1	1	.....	9	.....	.....	21
60 to 69 years .....	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	1	2	.....	13
70 to 79 years .....	.....	3	.....	.....	.....	1	3	.....	7
80 to 89 years .....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
90 years or over ..	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Age not reported ..	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	2	.....	.....	4
Total .....	59	64	7	2	24	65	8	2	231

SANDY SPRING, 1899.

15 to 19 years .....	48	.....	.....	.....	30	3	.....	.....	81
20 to 29 years .....	21	24	.....	1	20	40	1	1	108
30 to 39 years .....	5	34	.....	2	5	39	.....	1	86
40 to 49 years .....	2	37	1	.....	.....	28	4	2	74
50 to 59 years .....	.....	24	2	1	2	16	4	.....	49
60 to 69 years .....	.....	16	3	2	.....	11	5	1	38
70 to 79 years .....	.....	6	1	1	.....	2	6	.....	16
80 to 89 years .....	1	2	.....	.....	.....	1	7	.....	11
90 years or over ..	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	2
Age not reported ..	.....	2	.....	.....	2	3	.....	.....	7
Total .....	77	145	8	7	59	143	28	5	472

FARMVILLE, 1897.

15 to 19 years .....	79	.....	.....	.....	71	3	.....	.....	153
20 to 29 years .....	55	28	.....	3	44	51	3	3	187
30 to 39 years .....	6	46	.....	1	10	49	6	2	120
40 to 49 years .....	3	37	3	3	.....	30	22	3	101
50 to 59 years .....	2	30	7	4	.....	32	17	3	95
60 to 69 years .....	1	20	2	.....	.....	9	14	1	47
70 to 79 years .....	.....	12	1	1	.....	4	11	.....	29
80 to 89 years .....	.....	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	6
90 years or over ..	.....	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
Age not reported ..	1	1	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	3
Total .....	147	178	14	12	126	178	76	12	743



For comparison, the following table of the conjugal condition of the Negroes of Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet, of Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville, and of several foreign countries is inserted. The table includes persons of 15 years of age or over.

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF THE NEGROES OF CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET, OF LITWALTON, VA., SANDY SPRING, MD., AND FARMVILLE, VA., AND OF THE POPULATIONS OF VARIOUS FOREIGN COUNTRIES, BY SEX.

[The per cents for Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet, and for Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville are computed from schedules; those for foreign countries are taken from Mayo-Smith's statistics and sociology. The figures for divorced are not shown for the foreign countries. This table does not include 65 persons at Sandy Spring and 75 at Farmville, mostly women in domestic service.]

Civil division.	Per cent of males 15 years of age or over.			Per cent of females 15 years of age or over.		
	Single.	Married.	Wid-owed.	Single.	Married.	Wid-owed.
Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet.....	27.7	65.0	<i>a</i> 4.4	22.5	62.5	<i>b</i> 6.2
Litwalton.....	44.7	48.5	<i>c</i> 5.3	24.2	65.7	<i>d</i> 8.1
Sandy Spring.....	32.5	61.2	<i>a</i> 3.4	25.1	60.9	<i>e</i> 11.9
Farmville.....	41.9	50.7	<i>f</i> 4.0	32.1	45.4	<i>g</i> 19.4
France.....	36.0	56.5	7.5	30.0	55.3	14.7
Germany.....	40.9	53.7	5.3	36.5	50.8	12.4
Great Britain.....	39.5	54.9	5.6	37.3	50.9	11.8
Hungary.....	31.5	63.7	4.7	22.0	62.8	15.0
Ireland.....	49.3	44.8	5.9	43.5	42.1	14.4
Italy.....	40.9	53.1	6.0	33.2	53.2	13.6

*a* Also 2.9 per cent separated.  
*b* Also 8.8 per cent separated.  
*c* Also 1.5 per cent separated.  
*d* Also 2 per cent separated.

*e* Also 2.1 per cent separated.  
*f* Also 3.4 per cent separated.  
*g* Also 3.1 per cent separated.

In the following table the conjugal condition of the Negroes of Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet is compared with that of the Negroes of Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville, and with that of the entire population of the United States. Only persons of 20 years of age or over are included.

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF THE NEGROES OF CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET, OF LITWALTON, VA., SANDY SPRING, MD., AND FARMVILLE, VA., AND OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, BY SEX.

[The per cents for Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet, and for Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville are computed from schedules; those for the United States are taken from the United States census of 1890. This table does not include 65 persons at Sandy Spring and 75 at Farmville, mostly women in domestic service.]

Civil division.	Per cent of males 20 years of age or over.				Per cent of females 20 years of age or over.			
	Single.	Married.	Wid-owed.	Di-vorced.	Single.	Married.	Wid-owed.	Di-vorced.
Cinclare, Silvery, and Calu- met.....	14.66	76.72	5.17	<i>a</i> 3.45	11.11	69.84	7.94	<i>a</i> 11.11
Litwalton.....	33.64	58.18	6.36	<i>a</i> 1.82	7.50	80.00	10.00	<i>a</i> 2.50
Sandy Spring.....	15.35	76.72	4.23	<i>a</i> 3.70	14.36	69.31	13.86	<i>a</i> 2.47
Farmville.....	25.00	65.44	5.15	<i>a</i> 4.41	17.30	55.03	23.90	<i>a</i> 3.77
United States:								
Native whites, native parents.....	28.54	66.08	4.74	<i>b</i> .64	18.75	67.88	12.79	<i>b</i> .58
Native whites, foreign parents.....	48.82	48.65	2.25	<i>b</i> .28	34.83	58.76	6.02	<i>b</i> .39
Foreign whites.....	28.06	65.93	5.51	<i>b</i> .50	15.39	68.05	16.21	<i>b</i> .35
Negroes.....	25.01	69.02	5.40	<i>b</i> .57	15.71	65.02	18.41	<i>b</i> .86
Total United States...	30.95	63.83	4.65	<i>b</i> .57	19.92	66.35	13.19	<i>b</i> .54

*a* Separated.

*b* Including unknown.



As seen in these last few tables the conjugal condition of the Negroes of Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet presents some very marked contrasts to that of the Negroes of Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville. The number of single men and women of Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet over 15 years of age is very much less in proportion than of either Litwalton, Sandy Spring, or Farmville. In Litwalton the number of single men between 20 and 30 was nearly four times the number in the same age period who were or had been married; in Farmville the number of single men in this age period was not far from double the number of those who were or had been married; in Sandy Spring the number of single and married in the same period was about equal; while at Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet the number of single men was less than one-half the number of men in the same age period who were married. The influences of city life being absent, we would expect to find this the case. Of those whose age was reported there was but one unmarried person 30 years of age or over. But while the per cent of single males and females is less it does not by any means follow that illicit sexual intercourse is any the less. In fact the conditions were found to be very much worse than those reported from either Sandy Spring or Farmville. There is no aspiration for social position to raise them and to have the good effect that the writer of the Farmville article thinks it is having on the Negroes of that place. He says "no black girl of the town can have an illegitimate child without being shut off from the best class of people and looked at askance by ordinary folks."<sup>a</sup> This is not at all the case at Cinclare or Calumet, where there are numerous children, known by all to be illegitimate, and yet this condition of affairs is considered and spoken of as a matter of course. To compute the per cent of illegitimacy would, however, be practically impossible. Legal marriage is not considered absolutely necessary. Of 40 couples at Cinclare who reported themselves as married, and who were known well by the head overseer, only 20 were legally married in the church or by the civil authorities. This would indicate that only 50 per cent of the married persons, so reported, were legally married. Those who have had long experience with the Negroes of the plantation state that even this figure is too high. Cohabitation is the rule. Even when they are legally married (and this is generally done after a period of cohabitation and under religious excitement), they soon forget their vows and, if the impulse strikes them, they separate and live with someone more to their liking. Numerous cases are seen of two persons legally married and yet each living with a different person and reporting as being married to the second. A legal divorce is practically unknown among the plantation Negroes. For all these reasons too much stress must not be laid on the figures on the conjugal condition of the Negroes

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<sup>a</sup> See Department of Labor Bulletin No. 14, page 38.



of Cinclare and Calumet; and yet they are thought to be representative of the plantation Negroes of the far South.

The following table shows the number of children born to each of the 80 females who returned answers, and the number of children still living:

NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF EACH FEMALE 15 YEARS OF AGE OR OVER REPORTING AT CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET, AND NUMBER STILL LIVING, 1900.

Children of each female.	Females 15 to 19 years of age.			Females 20 to 29 years of age.			Females 30 to 39 years of age.			Females 40 years of age or over.			Females, age not reported.		
	Fe-males	Chil-dren.	Chil-dren liv-ing.	Fe-males	Chil-dren.	Chil-dren liv-ing.	Fe-males	Chil-dren.	Chil-dren liv-ing.	Fe-males	Chil-dren.	Chil-dren liv-ing.	Fe-males	Chil-dren.	Chil-dren liv-ing.
None ..	11	.....	.....	7	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	2	.....	.....
1.....	2	2	1	11	11	9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....
2.....	4	8	5	6	12	9	1	2	2	.....	.....	.....	2	4	2
3.....	.....	.....	.....	4	12	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	6	3
4.....	.....	.....	.....	2	8	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	8	5
5.....	.....	.....	.....	1	5	2	.....	.....	.....	1	5	5	3	15	6
6.....	.....	.....	.....	1	6	6	1	6	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
7.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	7	5
8.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	8	3	1	8	7
9.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	9	5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
10.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	30	15
11.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	11	10	.....	.....	.....
12.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	12	10	1	12	1
13.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	13	5
14.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
15.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	15	6	.....	.....	.....
16.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	32	17	.....	.....	.....

Of these 80 women 58 have had children. These 58 have had 268 children, or an average of 4.62 per woman, of which 154, or 57.5 per cent, are still living. In 34 cases out of the 58, or 59 per cent, the first child is living. All those who were questioned on this subject, and who have lived with the Negroes all their lives, stated that the birth rate is diminishing rapidly and that stillbirths and miscarriages are becoming much more common.

As in the case of Sandy Spring, no facts were brought out in the investigation which indicated an actual miscegenation in progress between the two races, but concubinage is not so unknown.

The proportion of the Negroes of mixed blood is of course very difficult to determine. A record was kept of the personal appearance of all the Negroes recorded, and, as nearly as could be judged, 261 were apparently of unmixed Negro blood, while 40, or 13.3 per cent, showed traces of white blood. This percentage is very small in comparison with the figures for Litwalton, where the percentage of mixed blood was estimated to be not less than 75 per cent; for Sandy Spring, where it was estimated at from 30 to 60 per cent; and for Farmville, where it was estimated at from 30 to 50 per cent. But on the other hand it must be remembered that Cinclare is very much farther South, nearer the "Black Belt," and also that the overseers prefer a Negro of unmixed blood for work on the plantations, and that this influences



their choice of hands. The figure is moreover at best only an estimate, and undoubtedly would show a large error if the real facts could be known.

SCHOOLS AND ILLITERACY.

Cinclare has no school of its own for the Negroes, but they can attend the parish public school about 1 mile from Cinclare. Only about 30 children, or considerably less than 25 per cent, do attend from Cinclare, as there is no compulsory attendance. School is open eight months in the year.

At Calumet the facilities are little better. The school is held in the church building, which is at the geographical center of the place. The teacher (colored female) was educated in New Orleans, and seems interested in her work, and up to date in methods. She receives \$20 per month, whereas the teacher in the white public school receives \$40 per month. The school is free except that each family represented there must pay \$1 per annum for the purpose of defraying incidental expenses. The parish superintendent requires the teacher to drop all in arrears, but this rule is ignored in the white school. Only about 20 children, or less than 10 per cent, attend, the small attendance being chiefly due to indifference to the advantages of education and to the required payment of the dollar. The colored school is open four and the white eight months in the year. As at Cinclare, there is no compulsory attendance. The opportunities for education at both places are far better than they used to be, yet very few take advantage of them.

The following table shows the literates and illiterates by age periods. There was a little difficulty in getting answers to the question whether they were able to read or write, or both. For this reason, those "able to read and write a little" have been enumerated as distinct from those able to read and write as the terms are commonly used. Those who are put down as being able to read and write a little, can read a few well-known signs, advertisements, and the like. They simply read by remembering the shape of the sign or advertisement, and can not spell it out. In the same way they can write their names and a few figures, but nothing more. They are not wholly illiterate, however, and so have been given separately.

LITERATES AND ILLITERATES, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET, 1900.

Sex and age periods.	Able to read and write.	Able to read.	Illiterate.	Able to read and write a little.	Able to read a little.	Total.
MALES.						
10 to 20 years.....	6	3	30	4	1	44
21 to 30 years.....	10	3	38	1	1	53
31 to 40 years.....	5	1	13	2	1	22
41 years or over.....	3	1	15	2	.....	21
Age not reported.....	.....	1	14	.....	1	16
Total.....	24	9	110	9	4	156



LITERATES AND ILLITERATES, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET, 1900—Concluded.

Sex and age periods.	Able to read and write.	Able to read.	Illiterate.	Able to read and write a little.	Able to read a little.	Total.
<b>FEMALES.</b>						
10 to 20 years.....	6	.....	22	3	.....	31
21 to 30 years.....	5	2	16	3	1	27
31 to 40 years.....	1	.....	3	.....	.....	4
41 years or over.....	2	.....	4	2	.....	8
Age not reported.....	1	.....	18	.....	.....	19
Total.....	15	2	63	8	1	89
<b>BOTH SEXES.</b>						
10 to 20 years.....	12	3	52	7	1	75
21 to 30 years.....	15	5	54	4	2	80
31 to 40 years.....	6	1	16	2	1	26
41 years or over.....	5	1	19	4	.....	29
Age not reported.....	1	1	32	.....	1	35
Total both sexes.....	39	11	173	17	5	245

This table presents a very different state of affairs from that found in either Litwalton, Sandy Spring, or Farmville, as shown by the tables which follow:

LITERATES AND ILLITERATES, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, LITWALTON, VA., 1901. (a)

Sex and age periods.	Able to read and write.	Able to read.	Illiterate.	Not reported.	Total.
<b>MALES.</b>					
10 to 20 years.....	28	5	11	14	58
21 to 30 years.....	24	4	11	1	40
31 to 40 years.....	13	1	12	.....	26
41 years or over.....	12	2	24	.....	38
Age not reported.....	1	.....	.....	3	4
Total males.....	78	12	58	18	166
<b>FEMALES.</b>					
10 to 20 years.....	32	1	5	7	45
21 to 30 years.....	13	2	9	.....	24
31 to 40 years.....	9	1	10	1	21
41 years or over.....	1	.....	27	.....	28
Age not reported.....	.....	.....	2	.....	2
Total females.....	55	4	53	8	120
<b>BOTH SEXES.</b>					
10 to 20 years.....	60	6	16	21	103
21 to 30 years.....	37	6	20	1	64
31 to 40 years.....	22	2	22	1	47
41 years or over.....	13	2	51	.....	66
Age not reported.....	1	.....	2	3	6
Total both sexes.....	133	16	111	26	286

a See Department of Labor Bulletin No. 37, page 1146.



## LITERATES AND ILLITERATES, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, SANDY SPRING, MD., 1899. (a)

Sex and age periods.	Able to read and write.	Able to read.	Illiterate.	Not reported.	Total.
<b>MALES.</b>					
10 to 20 years .....	91	6	10	2	109
21 to 30 years .....	36	1	10	.....	47
31 to 40 years .....	34	3	8	.....	45
41 years or over.....	36	8	46	4	94
Age not reported .....	2	1	2	3	8
Total .....	199	19	76	9	303
<b>FEMALES.</b>					
10 to 20 years .....	102	4	9	3	118
21 to 30 years .....	47	1	5	1	54
31 to 40 years .....	41	4	2	.....	47
41 years or over.....	41	8	37	3	89
Age not reported .....	4	.....	1	5	10
Total .....	235	17	54	12	318
<b>BOTH SEXES.</b>					
10 to 20 years .....	193	10	19	5	227
21 to 30 years .....	83	2	15	1	101
31 to 40 years .....	75	7	10	.....	92
41 years or over.....	77	16	83	7	183
Age not reported .....	6	1	3	8	18
Total both sexes.....	434	36	130	21	621

*a* See Department of Labor Bulletin No. 32, pages 68 and 69.

## LITERATES AND ILLITERATES, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, FARMVILLE, VA., 1897. (a)

Sex and age periods.	Able to read and write.	Able to read.	Illiterate.	Not reported.	Total.
<b>MALES.</b>					
10 to 20 years .....	97	49	45	4	195
21 to 30 years .....	38	16	26	1	81
31 to 40 years .....	30	7	10	.....	47
41 years or over.....	34	13	80	5	132
Age not reported .....	1	1	1	1	4
Total .....	200	86	162	11	459
<b>FEMALES.</b>					
10 to 20 years .....	96	21	34	3	154
21 to 30 years .....	52	21	23	1	97
31 to 40 years .....	28	17	28	.....	73
41 years or over.....	10	14	116	.....	140
Age not reported .....	.....	.....	.....	1	1
Total .....	186	73	201	5	465
<b>BOTH SEXES.</b>					
10 to 20 years .....	193	70	79	7	349
21 to 30 years .....	90	37	49	2	178
31 to 40 years .....	58	24	38	.....	120
41 years or over.....	44	27	196	5	272
Age not reported .....	1	1	1	2	5
Total .....	386	159	363	16	924

*a* See Department of Labor Bulletin No. 14, page 14.

Of the 245 persons reported, 173 or 70.6 per cent were illiterate, 39 or 15.9 per cent could read and write, 11 or 4.5 per cent could read but not write, 17 or 6.9 per cent could read and write a "little," and 5 or 2.1 per cent could read a "little" but not write.

Of those reporting as to literacy in Litwalton 51.2 per cent could read and write, 6.1 per cent could read but not write, and 42.7 per cent were illiterate; in Sandy Spring 72.3 per cent could read and



write, 6 per cent could read but not write, while 21.7 per cent were illiterate; and in Farmville 42.5 per cent could read and write, 17.5 per cent could read but not write, and 40 per cent were illiterate.

The illiteracy of the youth from 10 to 20 years of age on Cinclare and Calumet plantations is 69.3 per cent as compared with 19.5 per cent of those reporting as to literacy at Litwalton, 8.6 per cent at Sandy Spring, and 23.1 per cent at Farmville.

If, as in the case of Farmville, the population is divided into four classes, (a) according to the circumstances under which they were reared, instead of decreasing illiteracy the opposite result is shown, viz, an increasing per cent of illiteracy from war times (40 to 31 years), when it was 61.5 per cent, through the next decade where it was 67.5 per cent, to the present youth whose rate is 69.3 per cent. The only explanation for this is that the rate of school attendance has been steadily declining. If the race is to be elevated the first change must be made here, and some system by which more will attend school must be instituted, either by lowering the expense or making attendance compulsory. These figures do not represent an exceptional case but are representative of plantation Negro labor.

### OCCUPATIONS AND WAGES.

The occupations of the Negroes of Cinclare and Calumet are those characteristic of a plantation community. Every able-bodied man on the place is supposed to work there, and if for any length of time he does not do so, he is not allowed to remain. All the members of their families live with the men on the plantations, and the women are given employment if they want it and their labor is needed. Old persons who can not earn their living are discouraged from staying on the plantation and eventually becoming a care to the owner, and they must move off in order to make room for those who can do the work well. For these obvious reasons the occupations of these Negroes can not be compared with those of either Litwalton, Sandy Spring, or Farmville.

It is almost impossible to give statistics on the number employed in each kind of work on the plantations, for not only do the occupations change with the seasons of the year, but on no two days are the number in each subdivision the same, for the laborer is put at the work that is necessary to be done each day.

The year's work on a plantation may be divided into two parts, the cultivating season, when the cane is planted and cultivated, and the grinding season, when it is cut and manufactured into sugar. The month of March may be taken as representative of the cultivating season, for it presents a mean of the months January to September, inclusive, which constitute the cultivating season. The month of November may be taken as presenting the mean of the months October to December, inclusive, which constitute the grinding season.

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<sup>a</sup> See Department of Labor Bulletin, No. 14, page 14.



In March, 1901, there were 90 hands employed at Cinclare, and of this number 27 were women. The able-bodied men were used for plowing, although some of them, with the old men, women, and boys under 21, were used for hoeing.

They were divided very much as follows:

Plowing (men).....	32
Hoeing (men, women, and boys).....	38
Ditching (men) .....	8
Odd jobs in the field, such as quarter draining, weeding ditch banks, water boys, etc .....	12

In grinding season a great deal of extra labor has to be hired, and Negroes come and live on the place during the months of October, November, and December, returning home at the end of grinding, which is generally about the 1st of January. In November, 1900, 247 hands were employed at Cinclare, of which number 90 were women. It is impossible to divide them into different occupations as they are used for whatever work is necessary to be done. By far the largest percentage of the men, and all the women, are employed at cutting cane. The rest of the men, or as many as are needed, are employed at loading and hauling cane, a few in the cane shed, and a number at different jobs around the factory, such as firemen, assistants for mechanics, handling barrels, loading cars, etc.

There is practically no Negro skilled labor on the place, except one blacksmith, and two or three carpenters' assistants, who can scarcely be called skilled laborers. For quite a number of years it so happened that the preacher for the Negro church lived and worked on the place. He was the only one who had any claim whatever to representing the professions, and his claim lay in his name only.

The figures for Calumet are very much the same as those given for Cinclare, but are for an average of six years (1896 to 1901, inclusive) for the cultivating season, and for an average of five years (1896 to 1900, inclusive) for the grinding season.

During the month of March an average of 135 Negroes were employed on Calumet plantation, of whom 22 were boys under 21 years, 10 were women (15 to 50 years), and 103 were men. These laborers were divided as follows:

Plowmen .....	43
Teaming and other work with mules .....	1
Water boys .....	4
Cross drain men .....	6
Hoe hands (men) .....	36
Hoe hands (women) .....	10
Ditchers .....	20
Jobbers .....	15
Total .....	135



Besides the field laborers enumerated above there are hostlers, bridge tenders, and whitewashers, and a number doing odd jobs about the factory. There are also two blacksmiths and two or three carpenters on the place.

It has so happened that nearly all of the ditching during the six years involved has been done in February, March, and April, these men not being employed the rest of the year. Most of them are from neighboring towns and do not reside on the place. The jobbers referred to are workers upon the railroad, the levees, or the major canals, wood choppers, and the like. Some years there have been a good many of these and other years very few, according as they have been cleaning canals, clearing land, or doing similar work. The present season but three women have been in the fields, whereas some years the number has reached 30 in the early part of the cultivating season, while the weather was yet cool. This only shows how very difficult it is to get any average for the occupations of the Negroes.

In grinding season the average number of Negroes employed on Calumet plantation is 165, of which number 63 are women. All the women and as many men as are needed are put to work at cutting cane. Of the rest of the men some are engaged in hauling cane, a good many work in the cane shed, while others work around the factory as firemen, coal rollers, centrifugal men, etc. The rotation of work of able-bodied men on Cinclare and Calumet plantations from the beginning to the end of the year is as follows: Plowmen begin the year with spring plowing, harrowing, etc. Numbers of them then haul seed cane for planting or running meal distributors. The crop once planted, many are put to operating stubble shavers, stubble diggers, fertilizer distributors, cultivators, corn planters, and other draft implements, very rarely being given a few days in the hoe gang or, after great rains, in the cross drains. They also haul filter-press cake and manure, repair bridges, and in the late summer shovel out ditches. In the autumn they assist in pulling and hauling corn and hay, mow turn rows, and finally all get to four-mule fall plowing. During grinding as many as are required are employed at hauling cane to the railroad or cane shed and the balance at cutting cane.

Hoe men do little until the grinding season but hoe, clean levees, ditch banks, fence rows, etc., drop and thin corn, pull and house corn, turn, load, and stow hay, and attend to all miscellaneous work. In the late summer they shovel grass out of ditches. During grinding their principal work is cutting cane.

Ditchers are usually employed to assist in planting. They then follow their peculiar work for two months or so. Along in May they are put in the hoe gang, when they disappear from the place, one by one, in quick order.



Jobbers can never be induced to do any field work, except during grinding, when most of them cut cane or work about the sugar house as firemen, coal rollers, centrifugal men, etc. They are generally of little account, but there are notable exceptions.

Women drop, hoe, and thin corn, and in the grinding season cut cane. Except for a few among the older ones, the women make only about one-half time. During the cultivating season practically none work on Saturdays and very few on Mondays. They do not work in bad weather. During grinding they lay off on Saturdays, but generally work on Mondays. They average well as cane cutters, but are otherwise very unsatisfactory. Whereas few of them work during the cultivating season, not only all the women living on the places, but also those from neighboring plantations and villages turn out to cut cane in the grinding season.

All of the Negro laborers except the ditchers and jobbers are paid by the day. At Cinclare the wages are as follows:

Cultivating season:

Men.....	\$0.75
Women.....	.60
Old men and boys.....	.50

Grinding season:

Men.....	1.00
Women.....	.75
Old men and boys.....	.65

Each family is furnished with a cabin or portion of one, as the case may be, free of charge. Negro laborers do not work on Saturday afternoons during the cultivating season. They are assigned a garden spot, and allowed the use of a mule on Saturday afternoons, and also the use of a wagon to haul wood, for which no charge is made. Sometimes wood is furnished free during the grinding season, as the laborers are needed for plantation work, and it is more profitable to have their labor and give them wood rather than lose their labor while they are cutting wood themselves. Some, however, prefer to buy their wood and seek to occupy their time in working their gardens; others are too lazy to work gardens.

The laborer is given a ticket each day with the amount of his wage on it in divisions of 5 cents each. These tickets are good at the store at Cinclare, which is run by the owner of the place. At the end of each month the laborers are paid in cash for all the uncanceled tickets they have.

Cinclare being located on the Mississippi River, there is no difficulty in securing the kind of labor that is wanted, and therefore very few, if any, Italians are employed, Negro labor alone being preferred, as the two do not mix well together. In grinding season, when a large amount of extra labor is required for a few months only, the Negroes



of Mississippi come of their own free will and accord, attracted by the higher cash wages during grinding, being about the only cash money they secure during the year. They are mostly small cotton croppers, and by the time grinding begins their crop is harvested. There being no other work for them to do in the cotton section, they seek the sugar section for the balance of the winter, remaining sometimes until March, when cotton planting begins.

At Calumet the conditions are different in this respect. The average wages for the cultivating season for the past six years (1896 to 1901, inclusive), and for the grinding season for the past five years (1896 to 1900, inclusive), were as follows:

Cultivating season:

Men.....	\$0. 70
Women .....	. 46

Grinding season:

Men.....	1. 19
Women.....	. 84

For the past two years (1899-1900 and 1900-1901) the wages have been:

Cultivating season:

Men.....	\$0. 75
Women .....	. 50

Grinding season:

Men.....	1. 25
Women .....	1. 00

At the present time (April 21, 1901) women are receiving \$0.50 a day, but an increase to \$0.55 is expected. Boys, girls, and old people are paid proportionately less, according to circumstances.

The laborer is furnished with a house just the same as at Cinclare. Plowmen are induced to work on Saturday afternoons at least two or three times per month. No effort is made to get them to work on pay days. Each family has a garden about its house, but the people are discouraged from taking any land in the field, as they never raise anything upon it. Very few cultivate even the house gardens, though many of them spade and prepare the land. They rarely have enterprise enough to buy seed. These gardens are too small to warrant plowing. The owner does not permit the people to haul their own wood or to use the teams for any purpose except to do plantation work. After they have cut their wood it is hauled in for them by a special teamster at a charge of 15 cents per load if the wood comes from the plantation on which the people live, and 75 cents if they go to one of the owners of adjoining properties or to any of the neighbors. Wood is never furnished free, but it is sometimes sold to the Negroes at cost. The factory hands work every Saturday afternoon and buy all their wood the year around. The laborers are paid in cash. Two stores are



on the plantation, both rented out, which have to meet outside competition. The plantation also has a ration room. From this, dry salt shoulders, flour, and meal are issued on account to those who have neither money nor credit with which to buy at the stores of the neighborhood.

From the figures given it is seen that the wages in grinding season are 25 cents higher at Calumet than at Cinclare. This is due to the location of Calumet, which is off the line of travel of the migrating Negroes and rather far away for the cotton croppers to go. The extra laborers at Calumet for the grinding season come from points along the Illinois Central Railroad, notably Amite City and Kentwood, in Louisiana, and Osyka, Magnolia, Brookhaven, Hazlehurst, Crystal Springs, Jackson, and Madison, in Mississippi. Some are brought in by neighbors from New Orleans and Mobile. The city people are mostly "bounty jumpers" and "gentlemen," who prove unsatisfactory. Many Teche planters procure their extra labor from parishes above them—St. Martin's, St. Landry, Rapides, Avoyelles, Lafayette, and Acadia. These are mostly "French" darkies, noisy but good workers, who return to the same plantation managers each year.

This extra labor is secured principally through colored labor agents residing at the points named, who have spent numerous grindings at Calumet as cooks, foremen at cane hoists, and the like. Several white men (cane weighers, cane-yard bosses, etc.), have brought colored help also from their homes in Mississippi. In every case the results are unsatisfactory. Very few whose homes are at a distance apply on the place, and those who do are mostly those who have "jumped" other planters, leaving debts behind. It is not known why the people from Mississippi go to Calumet. Those who have gone are mainly lazy, ragged, half-fed town boys, 18 to 25 years old, and not cotton hands. Some go, no doubt, for the journey and lark, their expenses being paid, others because their friends go, and others to spend a few weeks where food is plentiful; a few go for what they can earn. Storekeepers at their homes say that none of them bring any money home. People brought in later in the season, when labor is hardest to get, are generally of a better class—often, no doubt, cotton pickers out of a job.

Italians are taken as well as Negroes at Calumet. In fact during the six years 1896 to 1901, inclusive, there has been a steady decrease in the number of Negroes and an increase in the number of Italians employed. The majority of Italians are new arrivals from Italy and are single men. Six years ago there was not an Italian plowman on the place. The present year there are 12. The growth of an immense lumber industry in the neighborhood and the attractions of town life seem to explain the decreasing number of Negroes on the plantation. The Negroes belong to a social race, do not like the steady work exacted



by the overseers, and, being imitative, like to buy such small properties as they can afford, all of which leads them into towns. Higher wages in the swamps and at sawmills induce some of them into the lumber industry, notwithstanding the work there is just as exacting as in the fields. At both Cinclare and Calumet the laborer is paid for the time he actually works. Field laborers work the year round from sunrise to sunset. They are always given a half hour for breakfast, from 8 to 8.30 a. m., and at least an hour for dinner, from 12 m. to 1 p. m. When the days are very long and hot they are given more time in the middle of the day, often from 11 a. m. to 2 p. m. This matter is entirely at the discretion of the local overseer, as is the question of the days on which they shall work, for if it is raining or too wet to do the work the hands are not called out. The field laborers average about twenty days in the month, but the plowmen lose more time than any other kind of laborers.

So far only field labor has been mentioned. It would be impossible to enumerate the wages paid to each workman about the factory, as they differ from time to time as the man changes from one job to another, but suffice it to say that they average about the same as field laborers. Factory laborers, however, generally make full time, not being laid off by the weather, as are the field laborers. The hands in the factory work six hours on and six hours off duty, twelve hours out of every twenty-four, night and day, Sundays and all, during grinding season. The hands that work in the factory out of the grinding season work the same time as the field laborers. One of the characteristics of Negro laborers is that they never provide for nor look ahead to the future. As soon as they make money they become indifferent, and frequently it is difficult to get them to work when they have money, for they claim to be sick and give various other excuses for staying away from work until they can spend their money. For this reason some planters think it is a benefit to have Italian or other classes of laborers, who are always ready to work for their pay, as an incentive to get the Negroes to work. On Calumet plantation, where there have been a good many Italians, the example of industry set by them has as yet not produced much effect upon the Negroes. The Negro is, however, so far a creature of habit and so readily conforms to the necessities which surround him that, with good management, prompt "turning out" may be made second nature to him.

### ECONOMICS OF THE FAMILY.

The statistics on the size of the families of the Negroes at Cinclare and Calumet who returned answers are for the real family only, i. e., the parents and all children living at present. It would be nearly impossible to get anywhere near the size of the possible, and the economic,



families. The economic family changes continually both by the shifting of the Negroes of their own accord and also by the overseers who assign the Negroes to the houses. In grinding season the number per house is greatly increased. At one time there were 22 single men and 2 families all living in an old building of two rooms, where ordinarily no one lives. Even the size of the real family will apply only to the time that the report was taken, on account of the constant swapping of women and children among the men. The extent to which this is carried on by the plantation Negroes is not realized anywhere but on the spot. It is safe to say that by far a large majority of them are married (mated) several times during their lifetime, and of those marriages which are contracted early in life few last more than two years. From this it will be seen how difficult it is to judge even by the real family, for sometimes they take their children by a previous marriage with them and sometimes they do not. The following is the table:

NUMBER OF CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET NEGRO REAL FAMILIES, BY SIZE.

Size of family.	The real family.		Size of family.	The real family.	
	Families.	Persons.		Families.	Persons.
1 member .....	26	26	9 members.....	6	54
2 members.....	29	58	10 members.....	2	20
3 members.....	33	99	11 members.....	1	11
4 members.....	21	84	12 members.....	3	36
5 members.....	18	90	Total .....	162	632
6 members.....	11	66			
7 members.....	8	56	Average .....		3.90
8 members.....	4	32			

A table showing the real families of Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville is also inserted for sake of comparison:

NUMBER OF LITWALTON, SANDY SPRING, AND FARMVILLE NEGRO FAMILIES, BY SIZE.(a)

Size of family.	The real family.					
	Litwalton, Va.		Sandy Spring, Md.		Farmville, Va.	
	Families.	Persons.	Families.	Persons.	Families.	Persons.
1 member .....	8	8	7	7	.....	.....
2 members .....	13	26	17	34	42	84
3 members .....	13	39	24	72	39	117
4 members .....	8	32	17	68	48	192
5 members .....	14	70	20	100	33	165
6 members .....	7	42	18	108	25	150
7 members .....	10	70	16	112	16	112
8 members .....	11	88	20	160	19	152
9 members .....	2	18	11	99	11	99
10 members .....	1	10	11	110	7	70
11 members .....	3	33	10	110	5	55
12 members .....	.....	.....	6	72	.....	.....
13 members .....	2	26	1	13	2	26
14 members .....	.....	.....	1	14	1	14
15 members .....	.....	.....	2	30	.....	.....
17 members .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	17
Total .....	92	462	181	1,109	249	1,253
Average .....	.....	5 02	.....	6.13	.....	5.03

a See Department of Labor Bulletins No. 37, page 1158, No. 32, pages 87 and 88, and No. 14, page 24.



The number of real families of one member each is absolutely larger at Cinclare and Calumet than at either Litwalton, Sandy Spring, or Farmville, although fewer families are considered than in the case of Sandy Spring and Farmville. This is due in a large part to the presence of a good many young persons who have been deserted by their parents and left to earn their own living. The number of large families is relatively very much less than at either Sandy Spring or Farmville. The average number of persons to each real family at Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet is 3.90, while at Litwalton it is 5.02, at Sandy Spring 6.13, and at Farmville 5.03.

The small size of the average real family at Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet may be partly explained by the fact that the Negroes there are of a lower average age than those either at Farmville or Sandy Spring. The families are all broken up by the continual swapping of women going on among the men. The Negroes do not seem to want children, and use all manner of means to prevent birth. Stillbirths and miscarriages are becoming more common all the time. The head overseer states that the number of births this year has been very small and that nearly all of them were stillbirths. Further than this, the reason for the small size of the families is not known, unless it is a fact that the Negro families are actually diminishing in size, though we would expect to find in a purely rural population like this larger families than in semiurban communities like Sandy Spring and Farmville.

As has been explained, it was impossible to obtain accurate figures for the economic family at Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet, figures for the real family only being given. In the following table percentages of the real families as to size, based on these figures, are brought into comparison with similar percentages of the real families at Litwalton, Sandy Spring, and Farmville, and tend to bring out more forcibly the diminishing in size of the plantation Negro families. No comparison can be made with the census figures for the United States and the North Atlantic States, as the census gives data for the economic family only.

PER CENT OF NEGRO REAL FAMILIES OF CINCLARE, SILVERY, AND CALUMET, AND OF LITWALTON, VA., SANDY SPRING, MD., AND FARMVILLE, VA., BY SIZE OF FAMILY.

Size of family.	Per cent of Negro real families of—			
	Cinclare, Silvery, and Calumet.	Lit- walton.	Sandy Spring.	Farm- ville.
1 member .....	16.05	8.70	3.87	.....
2 to 6 members.....	69.14	59.78	53.04	75.10
7 to 10 members.....	12.34	26.09	32.04	21.29
11 members or over .....	2.47	5.43	11.05	3.61

The Negroes on both places still live in the “quarters” as in the times of slavery. They live a little separated from the other buildings.



A street runs down the middle, and the cabins are on each side. On Cinclare plantation there are 34 cabins, 17 on each side of the street. There are two or three families, or from four to ten persons, in each cabin. The cabins have four rooms, and some families sleep all in one room, using extra room for cooking; others use both of the rooms allotted to them for sleeping and cooking.

On Calumet plantation there are 90 double houses in the quarters, arranged on each side of the street, each with four rooms, and each being counted as two houses when occupied by two families. Except for those with three rooms, all built of recent years, and a few old ones, on Grand-woods plantation, erected by other parties just after the war, which have but one room, all the houses have two rooms, or, if double cabins, four rooms. Some families also use the space above the ceiling and rafters in the peak of the roof for boys' sleeping apartments. Entire families do not as a rule sleep in one room at Calumet. If any houses are without occupants, they are those with a single room each. The maximum number of persons in one house is 13, the minimum number 3, and the average 6.11 persons to each house.

The Negroes as a rule do not work any harder than is necessary to keep their families alive. Boys of 12 to 13 years are made to work, but not all of them. The position of water boy is much sought after. Even boys such as mentioned are not forced into hard work by their parents and are not made to work regularly. More Italian than colored children are worked and at harder labor, such as hoeing. As a rule Negro parents who make their children work retain most, if not all, their wages. The result of this is that the boys run away from home and become independent very early in life. Girls do not often work before they are 15 or 16, and these retain their wages. Those boys who are forced to work cease giving up their wages as a rule when they become independent enough to run away from home, say at the age of 14 or 15. A few, who are permitted to spend a part of their earnings themselves and who are well treated, remain at home. These are given their independence by the time they are 15, probably from fear that otherwise they will leave. Many of the latter are fairly good boys, whose fathers are dead or gone off, but whose mothers, sisters, or others remain. They generally marry (mate) very early and usually separate from their women within a year or two after. Fathers, more often than mothers, are the cause of the boys leaving home at an early age. Few, if any, boys are supported, even in part, after they are from 16 to 16½ years of age. Cinclare differs a little in this respect, for there the children are more or less supported until 18 to 21 years of age.

Parents do not charge board even for grown children, though some families take single men (ditchers, jobbers, and even field hands) to board. Girls are cared for by parents until mated—boys until about



15, if they remain at home. Some of the girls cut cane in grinding season and buy clothes with the proceeds. If wages are high they hoe, off and on, during the cultivating season, but spend their earnings themselves. They begin very early to get money from the men. Boys, instead of paying cash board, purchase a portion of the provisions, dress themselves, cut wood, etc. Both boys and girls mate early, take houses, and set up for themselves.

Children are rarely a charge upon the parents after the fifteenth year, and never after they are from 16 to 16½, except in the case of young married girls, who return home after abandonment by their husbands.

The Negroes as a rule never save any money, although there are a very few exceptions. They do not know what economy is, and will buy anything that anyone will sell them on credit. They never think of the morrow, and spend their money foolishly. The men buy liquor and delicacies and the women gay garments and trinkets. No thought is given to durability or appropriateness in the purchase of dress or other articles, but only to showiness. They will not provide wood for cold weather, nor rain-proof shoes or garments for wet weather. They will not prepare in advance for any contingency. They are poor traders and do not know the intrinsic value to themselves or the exchangeable value of any article, or the relative value of different articles. They lack ambition, and prefer idleness and want to exertion and plenty. They are careless and will not care for even that which they have. They have an unfortunate notion of generosity, which enables the more worthless to borrow fuel, food, and what not on all hands from the more thrifty. They have an inborn love of gambling, which keeps the best workers among them idle much of the time and poor all the time; but worst of all, they have an unfortunate notion of freedom, which leads them to desire most those things which they could not possess as slaves—guns, ponies, and the privilege of moving about—none of which things brings them profit of any sort.

### GROUP LIFE.

The only expression of group life to be found among the Negroes of Cinclare and Calumet is that most characteristic of the Negroes throughout the United States—the Negro church. “The church is, among American Negroes, the primitive social group of the slaves on American soil, replacing the tribal life roughly disorganized by the slave ship, and in many respects antedating the establishment of the Negro monogamic home. The church is much more than a religious organization; it is the chief organ of social and intellectual intercourse. As such it naturally finds the free democratic organizations of the Baptists and Methodists better suited to its purpose than the stricter bonds of



the Presbyterians or the more aristocratic and ceremonious Episcopalians." (a) Thus we find that the churches of both Cinclare and Calumet are well attended. Both are of the Baptist denomination, although the one at Cinclare uses the Episcopal prayer book. The church which the Negroes of Cinclare attend is about one-quarter of a mile from the plantation in Brusly. It is attended not only by all the Negroes of Cinclare, but by those of the neighboring plantations as well. Church is generally held at night, even on Sunday, being a relic of slavery times, when slaves were only allowed to attend church at night. The church is supported by voluntary contributions and by assessments. If the members do not pay their dues they are read out of church. Assessments are made at the rate of 10 cents per capita monthly, and every quarter pound meetings are held, each member giving 1 pound of some kind of provision to the support of the preacher. The past few preachers that the church has had have been poor choices, and uneducated men whose private life was as bad if not worse than that of any of the other Negroes of the congregation. They claimed to be gifted by God to read the Bible, and so were accepted by the people.

The church at Calumet is better off in a good many respects. It is situated at the geographical center of Calumet plantation and is a part of the latter. There are a good many Methodists also, but they affiliate with the Baptists on perfect equality. The church has 80 communicants. About one-half of the entire Negro population, including children, attend services with considerable regularity. There has been no "revival" for a number of years. The executive board, consisting of seven deacons, decides upon the assessment, which is 25 cents for each member of the church per month for the pastor's salary. A general assessment of \$30 per annum is also made for mission work. Occasional collections are taken for the incidentals, viz, oil, fuel, etc. The church was built by the owner of the plantation. The members wish to "beautify" it. The male members are taxed \$1 each, the female members are asked for voluntary contributions of 75 cents, and the "sinner gentlemen" are requested to give as liberally as possible. The owner of the church also helps generously with the "beautifying" by resetting the glass and whitewashing.

The preacher is fairly good looking, well proportioned, pleasant mannered, and perhaps 35 years of age. After having had charge for several years of two churches (Oaklawn and Calumet), he spent six years at a Methodist boarding school at Baldwin, La., graduating in the English course. While studying he kept on with his pastoral work and the two charges paid the expense of his schooling, viz, \$6 per month. The people seem much attached to their pastor, who is called "elder," feel very proud of his education, and expect him

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a See Department of Labor Bulletin No. 14, page 34.



to remain permanently with them. He preaches at Calumet every other Sunday morning and alternate Sunday nights. The preaching is very characteristic. The elder usually prefaces his sermon with the remark that he is not feeling very well, sticks more or less closely to the text, speaking very quietly for a few minutes, but gradually drifts into a vivid description of various thrilling Biblical scenes, as that of Daniel in the lion's den, or of Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego in the fiery furnace, etc., reaching a climax in seeing the New Jerusalem with the four and twenty elders, or something akin. He moves rapidly from one side of the platform to the other, goes through various facial contortions, perspires freely, "hollers," and when the whole audience is swaying, moaning, surging, and shouting under intense excitement, the preacher drops his voice for a sentence and sits down exhausted.

The Negroes are naturally a social race and the large attendance at church at both places is easily explained aside from the religious attraction, as it is the only place where they get together and talk things over. The Negroes of Cinclare and Calumet have naturally not so elaborated a social system as is found in communities like Sandy Spring and Farmville, for they are too constantly changing, and all being engaged in the same kind of work, few have any economic advantages over the others. For this reason there are, as far as could be learned, no societies or clubs among them. Their one great diversion is picnics, which are generally given under the auspices of the church.

### CONCLUSIONS.

After what has been said it will be seen in what a terrible state the plantation Negroes are and what a problem they present for this country to deal with, for the conditions have improved but little, if any, since freedom was given them. The light-hearted hopefulness or the absence of care which so agreeably characterized the race a couple of generations ago seems to be disappearing. "The struggle for existence in the midst of economically competitive and socially antagonistic surroundings has had its saddening—perhaps its hardening—effect upon these people. The younger generations are not on as good terms with the whites as their elders, and they know it and show it." (*a*) They very much dislike the gang system of labor and roam all over the country seeking job work, when they can work as they please.

The Negro character, aside from purely racial traits, differs between various individuals as widely, proportioned to intellectual and moral capacity, as among the whites. Every extreme is met with among them. As a race they are strong and healthy, but as they abuse themselves

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*a* See Department of Labor Bulletin No. 32, page 101.



they are not, as a general thing, long lived. In trouble they are helpless. They lack confidence in themselves and are not ingenious in finding expedients. They are not the petty chicken thieves painted at the North. They are not bold, nor yet cunning enough to be successful thieves. They are not physically brave with the odds all against them, more than are the members of other races, but are desperately so at evens. Very few of them appear capable of deep emotion; sorrow over the dead dies with the sun; resentment passes with the night; of gratitude and local attachment they know nothing. Yet they are often faithful servants, and in advancing years seemingly much attached to those whom they have served. This may be from long habit and may be more apparent than real. The young children seem bright, but progress ceases at an early age. They appear to have little intellectual and little moral capacity. Few ever care to ask the real reasons for things. Superstition answers most questions to their satisfaction. Their notions of the marriage relations are too vague to have much influence on the conduct of either sex. They are grossly animal in their sexual relations, both in and out of their families. How far the conditions given here for Cinclare and Calumet typify the condition of all the Negroes of Louisiana is not known. The two places were chosen as typifying the rest of the State, the conditions being normal as far as known. How near this has come to the condition of the plantation Negro of Louisiana can only be determined by further study.



## CHARTS EXHIBITED AT THE PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION.

In connection with the exhibit of the United States Department of Labor at the Pan-American Exposition a number of charts were prepared, showing in graphic form certain data taken from its various reports. These data consisted chiefly of statistics relating to the average daily wages in certain cities of the United States, Great Britain, France, and Belgium, from 1870 to 1896, inclusive, in selected occupations, published in Bulletins 18 and 22 of the Department; those relating to the number of strikes from 1881 to 1900, inclusive, number of establishments involved, number of employees thrown out of employment by reason of the same, amount of wage loss of employees, amount of assistance rendered them by labor organizations, and amount of the employers' losses, published in the Sixteenth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor; those relating to relative money wages, hours of labor, wholesale prices, and relative real wages (that is, wages measured by wholesale prices), from 1840 to 1899, as compared with the same in 1860, these data (except those for relative real wages which were computed for the chart) being based on figures collected by the Department and published in a report of the Senate Finance Committee, entitled "Wholesale Prices, Wages, and Transportation," and on the figures relating to prices and wages, published in Bulletins 27 and 30 of the Department; and those relating to the statistics of cities of the United States of 30,000 population and over, published in Bulletin 30 of the Department.

The Department has been in receipt of many inquiries relating to these charts and of many requests for copies of the same. In order to supply this demand and because of the interesting character of the charts and of the data covered, it has been determined to reproduce the most important of them here. All of the charts described above, therefore, are given herewith, with the exception of those relating to the statistics of the cities of the United States of 30,000 population and over, these latter having been omitted because of the fact that a later compilation of such statistics has already appeared in Bulletin 36 of the Department.

It has been thought well to furnish, in connection with the charts, the figures upon which they have been based. The following tables are therefore presented, with such explanation as is deemed necessary to a complete understanding of the same. The titles of these tables,



which immediately follow, and each of which bears a number corresponding to the number of the chart to which it pertains, are—

Table I.—Strikes ordered by labor organizations and others, establishments involved, and employees thrown out of work, 1881 to 1900.

Table II.—Wage loss of employees, assistance to employees by labor organizations, and employers' loss in strikes, 1881 to 1900.

Table III.—Relative money wages, hours of labor, and wholesale prices, and relative real wages (wages measured by wholesale prices), 1840 to 1899, as compared with the same in 1860.

Table IV.—Average daily wages (gold) in certain cities of the United States, Great Britain, France, and Belgium, 1870 to 1896.

The charts follow immediately after the tables and in the same numerical order.

TABLE I.—STRIKES ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND OTHERS, ESTABLISHMENTS INVOLVED, AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1881 TO 1900.

Year.	Strikes.			Estab-lish-ments in- volved.	Em- ployees thrown out of work.
	Ordered by labor organi- zations.	Not or- dered by labor or- ganiza- tions.	Total.		
1881.....	222	249	471	2,928	129,521
1882.....	218	236	454	2,105	154,671
1883.....	271	207	478	2,759	149,763
1884.....	239	204	443	2,367	147,054
1885.....	361	284	645	2,284	242,705
1886.....	760	672	1,432	10,053	508,044
1887.....	952	483	1,436	6,589	379,676
1888.....	616	288	906	3,506	147,704
1889.....	724	351	1,075	3,786	249,559
1890.....	1,306	525	1,833	9,424	351,944
1891.....	1,284	432	1,717	8,116	298,939
1892.....	918	380	1,298	5,540	206,671
1893.....	906	399	1,305	4,555	265,914
1894.....	847	501	1,349	8,196	660,425
1895.....	658	555	1,215	6,973	392,403
1896.....	662	363	1,026	5,462	241,170
1897.....	596	482	1,078	8,492	408,391
1898.....	638	418	1,056	3,809	<sup>a</sup> 249,002
1899.....	1,115	682	1,797	11,317	417,072
1900.....	1,164	615	1,779	9,248	505,066

<sup>a</sup> Not including the number in 33 establishments for which these data were not obtainable.

TABLE II.—WAGE LOSS OF EMPLOYEES, ASSISTANCE TO EMPLOYEES BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS, AND EMPLOYERS' LOSS IN STRIKES, 1881 TO 1900.

Year.	Wage loss of employees.	Assistance to employees by labor or- ganizations.	Employers' loss.
1881.....	\$3,372,578	\$287,999	\$1,919,483
1882.....	9,864,228	734,339	4,269,094
1883.....	6,274,480	461,233	4,696,027
1884.....	7,666,717	407,871	3,393,073
1885.....	10,663,248	465,827	4,388,893
1886.....	14,992,453	1,122,130	12,357,808
1887.....	16,560,534	1,121,554	6,698,495
1888.....	6,377,749	1,752,668	6,509,017
1889.....	10,409,686	592,017	2,936,752
1890.....	13,875,338	910,285	5,135,404
1891.....	14,801,505	1,132,557	6,176,688
1892.....	10,772,622	833,874	5,145,691
1893.....	9,938,048	563,183	3,406,195
1894.....	37,145,532	931,052	18,982,129
1895.....	13,044,830	559,165	5,072,282
1896.....	11,098,207	462,165	5,304,235
1897.....	17,463,904	721,164	4,868,687
1898.....	10,037,284	585,228	4,596,462
1899.....	15,157,965	1,096,030	7,443,407
1900.....	18,341,570	1,434,452	9,431,299



TABLE III.—RELATIVE MONEY WAGES, HOURS OF LABOR, AND WHOLESALE PRICES, AND RELATIVE REAL WAGES (WAGES MEASURED BY WHOLESALE PRICES), 1840 TO 1899, AS COMPARED WITH THE SAME IN 1860.

[Data (except relative real wages) for 1840 to 1891 are from statistical data collected by the Department of Labor and published in "Wholesale Prices, Wages, and Transportation," a report of the United States Senate Finance Committee; those for 1892 to 1899 are from Bulletin of the Department of Labor, Nos. 27 and 30. Relative real wages were computed for this table. Wages, hours of labor, and wholesale prices in 1860=100.]

Year.	Relative hours of labor (21 industries).	Relative money wages, gold (21 industries).	Relative wholesale prices, gold (90 articles).	Relative real wages (wages measured by wholesale prices).
1840.....	103.6	87.7	116.2	75.5
1841.....	95.5	88.0	114.6	76.8
1842.....	103.6	87.1	107.7	80.9
1843.....	104.5	86.6	100.3	86.3
1844.....	105.5	86.5	100.9	85.7
1845.....	104.5	86.8	103.4	83.9
1846.....	103.6	89.3	109.4	81.6
1847.....	104.5	90.8	106.4	85.3
1848.....	102.7	91.4	102.2	89.4
1849.....	101.8	92.5	100.4	92.1
1850.....	104.5	92.7	103.7	89.4
1851.....	103.6	90.4	102.7	88.0
1852.....	101.8	90.8	99.0	91.7
1853.....	102.7	91.8	108.1	84.9
1854.....	100.9	95.8	113.5	84.4
1855.....	100.9	98.0	114.8	85.4
1856.....	100.0	99.2	115.4	86.0
1857.....	99.1	99.9	115.1	86.8
1858.....	100.0	98.5	102.0	96.6
1859.....	100.9	99.1	100.5	98.6
1860.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1861.....	99.1	100.8	99.6	101.2
1862.....	98.2	100.4	122.3	82.1
1863.....	98.2	76.2	112.2	67.9
1864.....	98.2	80.8	138.1	58.5
1865.....	97.3	66.2	117.8	56.2
1866.....	98.2	108.8	152.9	71.2
1867.....	98.2	117.1	140.7	83.2
1868.....	96.4	114.9	126.4	90.9
1869.....	96.4	119.5	124.6	95.9
1870.....	95.5	133.7	128.5	104.0
1871.....	95.5	147.8	131.3	112.6
1872.....	95.5	152.2	134.8	112.9
1873.....	95.5	148.3	130.9	113.3
1874.....	95.5	145.0	127.3	113.9
1875.....	93.6	140.8	121.4	116.0
1876.....	93.6	135.2	111.3	121.5
1877.....	93.6	136.4	112.9	120.8
1878.....	93.6	140.5	106.2	132.3
1879.....	93.6	139.9	103.4	135.3
1880.....	93.6	141.5	115.4	122.6
1881.....	93.6	146.5	113.5	129.1
1882.....	93.6	149.9	119.0	126.0
1883.....	93.6	152.7	114.2	133.7
1884.....	93.6	152.7	105.2	145.2
1885.....	93.6	150.7	96.9	155.5
1886.....	92.7	150.9	95.8	157.5
1887.....	90.9	153.7	96.3	159.6
1888.....	90.9	155.4	98.2	158.2
1889.....	90.9	156.7	98.9	158.4
1890.....	90.9	158.9	96.3	165.0
1891.....	90.9	160.7	96.6	166.4
1892.....	.....	161.2	92.4	174.5
1893.....	.....	159.6	93.2	171.2
1894.....	.....	157.6	86.1	183.0
1895.....	.....	157.3	81.5	193.0
1896.....	.....	157.4	81.5	193.1
1897.....	.....	159.0	78.6	202.3
1898.....	.....	158.8	80.4	197.5
1899.....	.....	163.2	83.6	195.2

According to the above table, relative money wages in 1860 were 100 and in 1861 were 100.8; relative prices, which in 1860 were 100, in 1861 were 99.6. As with the advance in wages there was a slight fall in prices, in order to understand thoroughly the meaning of these figures it is necessary to determine how much of a gain in purchasing



power in the average wage this gain of money wages and the small decline in prices represent.

If wages had remained unchanged and prices had fallen to 99.6 the purchasing power of wages would be represented by 100 divided by 99.6, or 1.004. That is to say, every dollar of wages that in 1860 would have purchased a dollar's worth of articles would in 1861 purchase \$1.004 worth, as compared with 1860. But in 1861 relative money wages advanced to 100.8, a gain of eight-tenths of 1 per cent. Their relative purchasing power would then be represented by 100.8 (the relative wages) multiplied by 1.004 (the purchasing power of each 1)=101.2032. That is to say, the average of 1861 would purchase 1.2032 per cent more than that of 1860, and may therefore be regarded as the real gain in wages over 1860. The other figures of the column "Relative real wages" were obtained in the same manner and may be interpreted in the same way.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE DAILY WAGES (GOLD) IN CERTAIN CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES, GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND BELGIUM, 1870 TO 1896.

Year and locality.	Black-smiths.	Brick-layers.	Carpenters.	Compositors.	Painters, house.
1870:					
United States.....	\$2.43	\$3.15½	\$2.36¾	\$2.52¼	\$2.22½
Great Britain.....	1.19¾	1.44	1.33¼	1.26½	1.30¾
Paris, France.....	1.19½	1.06¼	1.20¼	1.15¾	1.06¼
Lyon, France.....	1.25½	.86¾	.83¾	.96½	.....
Liege, Belgium.....	.68½	.....	.....	.64	.55
1871:					
United States.....	2.65½	3.61	2.57¾	2.75½	2.40¼
Great Britain.....	1.28½	1.44	1.33¼	1.29¾	1.30¾
Paris, France.....	1.19½	1.06¼	1.20¼	1.15¾	1.06¼
Lyon, France.....	1.25½	.86¾	.80	.96½	.....
Liege, Belgium.....	.80	.....	.....	.65¼	.56
1872:					
United States.....	2.70	3.67	2.60	2.77½	2.52¼
Great Britain.....	1.28½	1.46	1.35½	1.33¾	1.34¾
Paris, France.....	1.19½	1.15¾	1.20¼	1.15¾	1.06¼
Lyon, France.....	1.25½	.86¾	1.06¾	.96½	.91¾
Liege, Belgium.....	.81	.....	.....	.64¾	.56¾
1873:					
United States.....	2.60¾	3.35	2.47½	2.72	2.35½
Great Britain.....	1.29¾	1.46	1.45¾	1.33¾	1.36¼
Paris, France.....	1.19½	1.15¾	1.20¼	1.15¾	1.15¾
Lyon, France.....	1.25½	.86¾	1.07¼	.96½	.91¾
Liege, Belgium.....	.90	.....	.....	.67½	.56
1874:					
United States.....	2.59	3.14½	2.45	2.74	2.33¼
Great Britain.....	1.31¼	1.51½	1.48½	1.36½	1.37¾
Paris, France.....	1.19½	1.15¾	1.20¼	1.15¾	1.15¾
Lyon, France.....	1.35	.86¾	1.07½	.96½	.91¾
Liege, Belgium.....	.88	.....	.....	.69	.56¼
1875:					
United States.....	2.47	3.11	2.37½	2.71¾	2.23¼
Great Britain.....	1.31¼	1.54½	1.52	1.36½	1.41
Paris, France.....	1.23	1.15¾	1.24½	1.15¾	1.15¾
Lyon, France.....	1.35	.86¾	1.26½	1.06¼	.96½
Liege, Belgium.....	.80¾	.....	.....	.67½	.56½
1876:					
United States.....	2.43¾	3.00	2.30¾	2.64¾	2.16
Great Britain.....	1.34	1.66¼	1.54¾	1.36½	1.41
Paris, France.....	1.23	1.15¾	1.38	1.15¾	1.15¾
Lyon, France.....	1.35	.86¾	1.28	1.06¼	1.01¼
Liege, Belgium.....	.76½	.....	.....	.64½	.56¾
1877:					
United States.....	2.51¼	3.07½	2.31½	2.74	2.25¾
Great Britain.....	1.35¼	1.66¼	1.54¾	1.40	1.44
Paris, France.....	1.23	1.44¾	1.37¾	1.15¾	1.25½
Lyon, France.....	1.35	.86¾	1.28¾	1.06¼	1.01¼
Liege, Belgium.....	.76¾	.....	.....	.66½	.57¼



TABLE IV.—AVERAGE DAILY WAGES (GOLD) IN CERTAIN CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES, GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND BELGIUM, 1870 TO 1896—Continued.

Year and locality.	Black-smiths.	Brick-layers.	Carpenters.	Composi-tors.	Painters, house.
1878:					
United States.....	2.59 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.15	2.28	2.74 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.34 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.34	1.60 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.48 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.40	1.44
Paris, France.....	1.23	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lyon, France.....	1.35	.86 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.26	1.15 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.01 $\frac{1}{2}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.70			.71 $\frac{1}{2}$	.58 $\frac{1}{2}$
1879:					
United States.....	2.59 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.14 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.34 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.76 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.31 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.34	1.49	1.40	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.23	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lyon, France.....	1.35	.86 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.23 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.01 $\frac{1}{2}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.74			.72	.55 $\frac{1}{4}$
1880:					
United States.....	2.59 $\frac{3}{4}$	3.18 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.37 $\frac{1}{4}$	2.77 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.41 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.38	1.46	1.40	1.40	1.34 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.30 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lyon, France.....	1.35	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.75 $\frac{1}{4}$			.72 $\frac{1}{2}$	.62
1881:					
United States.....	2.64 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.46 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.49 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.78 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.47 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.36 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.46	1.42 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.30 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$
Lyon, France.....	1.35	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.85 $\frac{3}{4}$			.74 $\frac{1}{2}$	.63
1882:					
United States.....	2.64 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.72	2.55	2.81	2.51
Great Britain.....	1.38	1.46	1.42 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.30 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.35	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.40 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{2}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.87			.73 $\frac{3}{4}$	.62 $\frac{1}{2}$
1883:					
United States.....	2.64 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.89	2.58 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.80 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.61 $\frac{3}{4}$
Great Britain.....	1.38	1.51 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.45 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.30 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.35	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.79 $\frac{3}{4}$		.78 $\frac{1}{4}$	.75 $\frac{1}{2}$	.62 $\frac{1}{2}$
1884:					
United States.....	2.66 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.95	2.60 $\frac{1}{4}$	2.82 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.66
Great Britain.....	1.38	1.51 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.45 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.30 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.35	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.34 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{2}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.80 $\frac{1}{4}$		.78	.75 $\frac{1}{2}$	.64 $\frac{3}{4}$
1885:					
United States.....	2.62	3.99 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.57 $\frac{1}{4}$	2.82 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.64
Great Britain.....	1.38	1.46	1.45 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.30 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.35	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.78 $\frac{1}{4}$		.78	.82	.65 $\frac{3}{4}$
1886:					
United States.....	2.64 $\frac{3}{4}$	3.93	2.55 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.80 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.63 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.36 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.46	1.45 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.38 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.35	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.33 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.78 $\frac{3}{4}$		.77 $\frac{1}{2}$	.76 $\frac{3}{4}$	.66
1887:					
United States.....	2.66 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.01 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.52 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.81 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.63 $\frac{1}{4}$
Great Britain.....	1.36 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.46	1.45 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.39 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.40	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.34 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{2}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.79 $\frac{1}{4}$		.78 $\frac{1}{2}$	.77 $\frac{1}{4}$	.64 $\frac{1}{2}$
1888:					
United States.....	2.65	4.03	2.56	2.80 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.64
Great Britain.....	1.38	1.48 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.45 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.41 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.40	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.81		.77 $\frac{1}{2}$	.77 $\frac{3}{4}$	.66
1889:					
United States.....	2.64 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.13	2.54	2.80	2.61 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.36 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.51 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.48 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.41 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.40	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.78 $\frac{1}{2}$		.78	.75 $\frac{1}{4}$	.65 $\frac{3}{4}$
1890:					
United States.....	2.63 $\frac{1}{4}$	4.13	2.59 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.79 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.59 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.39	1.54 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.49 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.40	1.37 $\frac{3}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.56 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.40	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.36 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.11
Liege, Belgium.....	.78 $\frac{3}{4}$		.78 $\frac{1}{2}$	.78 $\frac{3}{4}$	.66 $\frac{1}{4}$



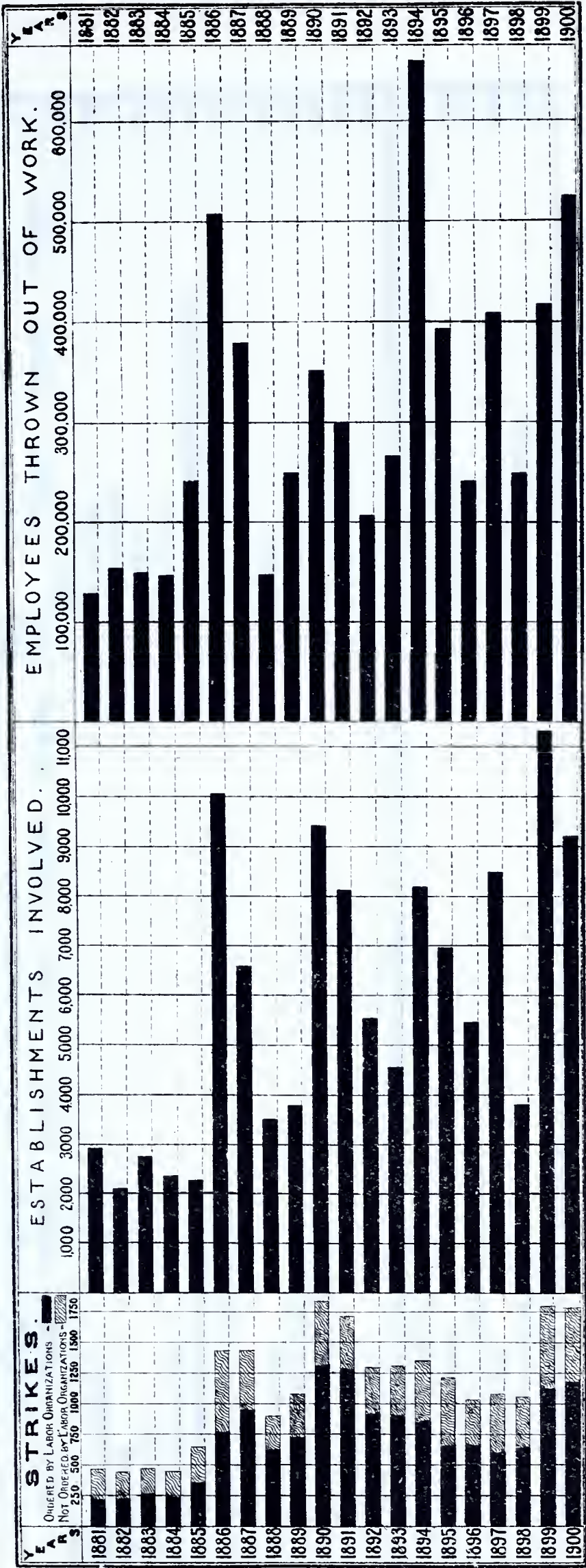
TABLE IV.—AVERAGE DAILY WAGES (GOLD) IN CERTAIN CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES,  
- GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND BELGIUM, 1870 TO 1896—Concluded.

Year and locality.	Black-smiths.	Brick-layers.	Carpenters.	Compositors.	Painters, house.
1891:					
United States.....	2.58	4.28 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.64 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.76 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.61 $\frac{1}{4}$
Great Britain.....	1.43 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.60 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.50 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.41 $\frac{1}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.56 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.40	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.33 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.11
Liege, Belgium.....	.84 $\frac{1}{2}$	-----	.78 $\frac{1}{4}$	.75 $\frac{1}{2}$	.66 $\frac{1}{4}$
1892:					
United States.....	2.59 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.23 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.65	2.78 $\frac{1}{4}$	2.68 $\frac{3}{4}$
Great Britain.....	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.60 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.52 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.38
Paris, France.....	1.56 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.40	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.11
Liege, Belgium.....	.87	-----	.78 $\frac{1}{2}$	.77 $\frac{1}{4}$	.66 $\frac{1}{4}$
1893:					
United States.....	2.59 $\frac{1}{4}$	4.12 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.67	2.77 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.69
Great Britain.....	1.47	1.60 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.52 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.41
Paris, France.....	1.56 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.40	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.34	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.87 $\frac{1}{2}$	-----	.79 $\frac{1}{2}$	.76 $\frac{1}{4}$	.66 $\frac{1}{2}$
1894:					
United States.....	2.49 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.12 $\frac{1}{4}$	2.62 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.79 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.67 $\frac{1}{2}$
Great Britain.....	1.45 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.63 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.52 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.41
Paris, France.....	1.71 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.27 $\frac{1}{2}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.89 $\frac{3}{4}$	-----	.80 $\frac{1}{4}$	.79	.66 $\frac{1}{2}$
1895:					
United States.....	2.47	4.02 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.81	2.60 $\frac{1}{4}$
Great Britain.....	1.48	1.63 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.52 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.41
Paris, France.....	1.71 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.34	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.82 $\frac{1}{2}$	-----	.79	.79 $\frac{1}{2}$	.66 $\frac{1}{2}$
1896:					
United States.....	2.44 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.82 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.52	2.82 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.58 $\frac{3}{4}$
Great Britain.....	1.52	1.69 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.58 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.42 $\frac{1}{4}$
Paris, France.....	1.71 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.64	1.55 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35
Lyon, France.....	1.44 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.35 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.15 $\frac{3}{4}$
Liege, Belgium.....	.89 $\frac{1}{4}$	-----	.81	.79 $\frac{3}{4}$	.64



TABLE I.

STRIKES ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND OTHERS, ESTABLISHMENTS INVOLVED, AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1881 TO 1900.



FROM THE FORTHCOMING SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

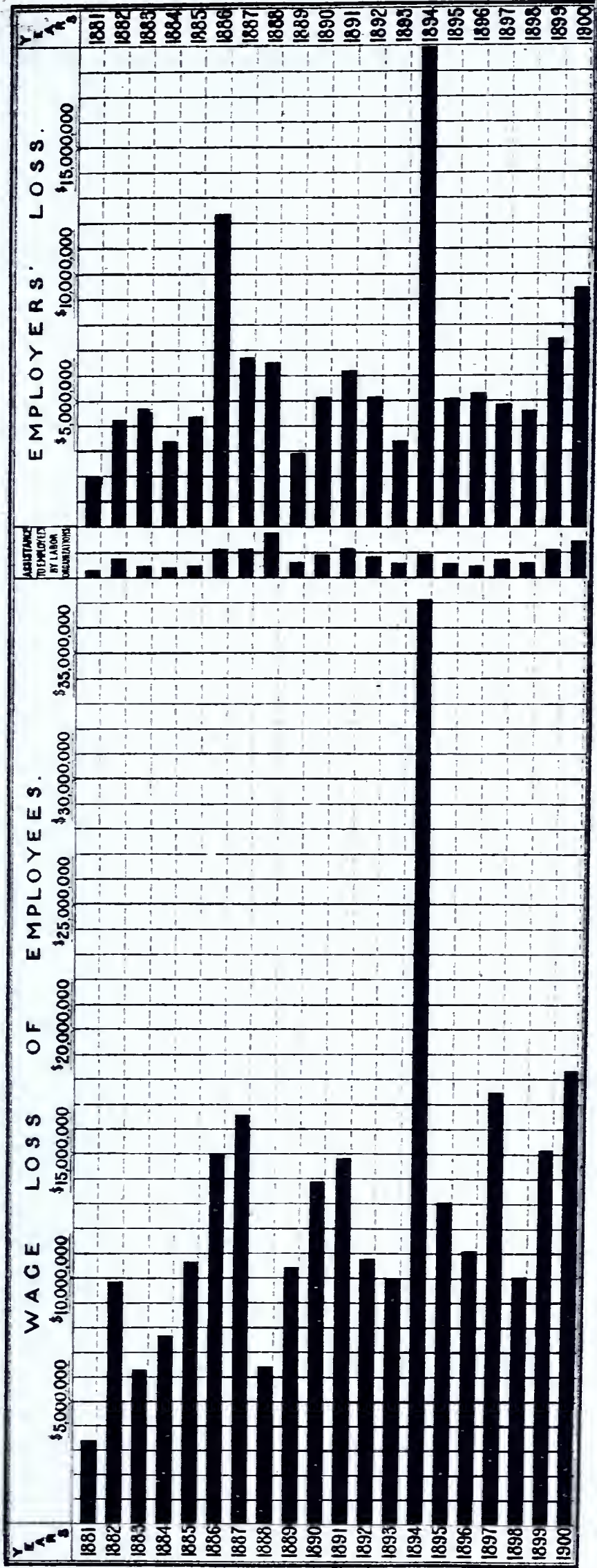






TABLE II.

WAGE LOSS OF EMPLOYEES, ASSISTANCE TO EMPLOYEES BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS,  
AND EMPLOYERS' LOSS, IN STRIKES, 1881 TO 1900.



FROM THE FORTHCOMING SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

Fig. 1. Comparison of the results of the measurements of the average number of particles per unit volume of the gas.



Fig. 1. Comparison of the results of the measurements of the average number of particles per unit volume of the gas.



FOLD

OUT





FOLD  
OUT





## THE QUEBEC TRADE DISPUTES ACT.

The following act respecting councils of conciliation and of arbitration for the settling of industrial disputes in the Province of Quebec, Canada, was assented to and became a law March 28, 1901:

WHEREAS the establishment of councils of conciliation and arbitration for the friendly settlement of disputes between employers and employees will conduce to the cultivation and maintenance of better relations and more active sympathies between employers and their employees, and would be in the public interest by providing simple methods for the prevention of strikes and lockouts;

Therefore His Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the legislature of Quebec, enacts as follows:

### SECTION I.—*General provisions.*

1. This act may be cited as “The Quebec Trade Disputes Act.”

2. In this act the word “employer” means any person or body of persons incorporated or unincorporated, employing not less than ten workmen in the same business; the word “employee” means any person in the employment of an employer, as defined by this act.

3. (1) A claim or dispute under this act shall include any of the matters following as to which there is a disagreement between any employer and his employees:

(a) The price to be paid for work done, or in course of being done, whether such disagreement shall have arisen with respect to wages, or to the hours or times of working;

(b) Damage done to work, delay in finishing the same, not finishing the same in a good and workmanlike manner or according to agreement; or the nature and quality of materials supplied to employees;

(c) The price to be paid for extracting any mineral or other substance from a mine, or quarry, or the allowances, if any, to be made for bands, refuse, faults or other causes whereby the extraction thereof is impeded;

(d) The performance or nonperformance of any written or verbal stipulation or agreement;

(e) Insufficient or unwholesome food or stores supplied to employees, where there is an agreement to victual them or to supply them with provisions or stores of any kind;

(f) Ill-ventilated or dangerous places in mines, or insanitary rooms in which work is being performed, or want of necessary conveniences in connection with such rooms or places;

(g) The dismissal or employment under agreement of any employee or number of employees;

(h) The dismissal of an employee or employees for his or their connection with any trade or labor organization.



(2) No claim or dispute shall be the subject of conciliation or arbitration under this act in any case in which there are less than ten employees interested in such claim or dispute.

4. The lieutenant-governor may appoint a "Registrar of Councils of Conciliation and of Arbitration" for the settlement of industrial disputes, chosen from among the persons performing other duties in the public service.

5. The registrar shall:

(1) Receive and register all applications by employers or employees or on their behalf for reference to a council of conciliation, or to a council of arbitration, of any dispute or claim within the meaning of this act;

(2) Convene such councils for the purpose of taking into consideration and deciding any dispute or claim;

(3) Keep a register in which shall be entered the particulars of all disputes and claims made to either of these councils, a summary of their proceedings and the original of their decision;

(4) Issue all notices in connection with the sittings of each such council;

(5) Do all such things as may be required to carry this act into execution, and perform all other duties defined by the commissioner of public works.

6. The registrar may issue all summonses to compel witnesses to attend to give evidence before a council of conciliation or a council of arbitration, or to produce any document in their possession or for both purposes at the same time.

## SECTION II.—*Council of conciliation.*

7. (1) A council of conciliation for the purposes of any dispute or claim, shall consist of four conciliators, two to be nominated by each of the parties to the dispute.

(2) The nomination shall be by writing lodged with the registrar.

(3) Either party may lodge the nomination paper with the registrar at any time after the dispute has arisen; and, if only one of the parties has notified the registrar of the nomination of his conciliators, that officer shall give notice to such other party of the nomination which he has received.

(4) Any vacancy in a council of conciliation shall be filled by any person nominated by the party who nominated the conciliator to be replaced.

8. The dispute or claim may be referred to a council of conciliation in the two following cases:

(1) If the parties to the dispute lodge an application therefor with the registrar;

(2) If only one of the parties lodge the application.

9. The registrar on receipt of any such application from the parties or from one of them, shall lay the same before the council constituted in the prescribed manner; and he shall carry out all directions of the council given him to effect a settlement of the dispute or claim.

10. Either party to the dispute or claim may be represented by one or more persons not exceeding three.

Such party shall be bound by the acts of such representative or representatives.

11. Where the party numbers fewer than twenty, the manager or



managers must be authorized to act by a writing signed by all such persons and handed to the registrar.

Where the party numbers twenty or more, the manager or managers may be appointed or elected in such manner as such persons think proper.

A copy of the resolution (if any) electing the managers, together with a declaration by the chairman of the meeting (if any) stating it to have been carried, shall be given to the registrar and be kept as a record of the election.

12. The parties to the dispute shall, if possible, draw up a joint written statement of their case; but if they do not agree thereupon, a statement in writing from each party shall be made.

The statement or statements shall be forwarded to the registrar before the meeting of the council.

13. When the parties have named their conciliators, the registrar shall by notice writing convene a meeting of the conciliators at such time and place as he determines.

14. (1) After taking cognizance of the dispute and of the facts, hearing the parties and endeavoring to conciliate them, the council of conciliation shall transmit to the registrar a report setting forth the result of its operations.

(2) In case such report is to the effect that the council has failed to bring about any settlement of the dispute, the registrar, on receipt of the report, shall transmit a copy, certified by him, to each party to the dispute; whereupon either party may require the registrar to refer the dispute to the council of arbitration for settlement.

### SECTION III.—*Council of arbitration.*

15. (1) There shall be two councils of arbitration: a council of arbitration for the settlement of disputes other than between railway (including street railway) companies and wage-earners employed in respect of railway construction or traffic on railways; and a council of arbitration for the settlement of disputes between such railway companies and wage-earners so employed in respect of railway construction or traffic on railways.

(2) Each council of arbitration shall consist of three members, British subjects, appointed by the lieutenant-governor in council.

(3) One member is appointed on the recommendation of the employees, and another on the recommendation of the employers; such two members may, within twenty-one days after their appointment, submit to the lieutenant-governor in council the name of some impartial person to be the third member, and president of the council.

(4) In case of the said two members failing so to do, the lieutenant-governor in council shall appoint as president an experienced impartial person not personally connected with or interested in any trade or industry, or likely by reason of his former occupation, business vocation, or other influence, to be biased in favor of or against employers or employees.

(5) The same person may be president of both councils.

(6) As soon as practicable after the council has been completed, the names of the members of the council shall be published by the registrar in the Quebec Official Gazette.

(7) The lieutenant-governor in council may, on the recommendation of the recommending authority, cancel the appointment of any member appointed on the recommendation of such authority.



(8) The term of office of a member of each council shall be two years; at the end of which term and of every successive term of two years, a fresh appointment of members shall be made in manner aforesaid.

(9) Every member retiring from office shall be reeligibile.

(10) If the president of a council becomes insolvent, or makes a composition with his creditors, or makes an assignment of his property or salary for the benefit of his creditors, or if any member of a council is convicted of any criminal offense, he thereby vacates his office of a member.

(11) Any vacancy in a council arising from death, resignation or other cause, is filled by a person nominated by the lieutenant-governor in council for the term of office, or the residue of such term (as the case may be), in accordance with the methods prescribed by this act.

(12) In case the president of a council is temporarily unable to act as such from illness, absence from the Province, or other cause, the lieutenant-governor in council may appoint a person to be acting president of the council in his place; and such acting president shall perform all the duties imposed by this act upon the president.

(13) If any member of a council, other than the president, shall from illness or from any other disability howsoever arising, be unable to perform the duties of his office in respect to any dispute, the parties may consent, in writing under their hands, to the appointment, by the lieutenant-governor in council, of a member named in such disability; and if either of the parties refuses such consent, then the judge of the superior court for the district in which the dispute has arisen may, on the application to him of the other party after notice given to the party refusing its consent, designate a person to be the appointed member as aforesaid, and the lieutenant-governor in council may appoint the person so designated, who shall thereupon be deemed a member of such council for all purposes relating to the hearing and determination of such dispute.

(14) The members of each council of arbitration shall be remunerated for their services in such manner and according to such rate of payment as the lieutenant-governor in council shall appoint, from and out of the consolidated revenue fund of this Province.

16. The recommendation of employers and employees as to the persons to be appointed as members of the councils of arbitration respectively is ascertained as follows:

(a) For the selection of the person to be recommended by the employers, every employer in the Province having at least ten persons in his employment is entitled to one vote; every organization in the Province, whether incorporated or unincorporated, representing the interests of employers, each member of which has at least ten persons in his employment, is entitled to one vote; every board of trade in the Province legally constituted is entitled to one vote.

(b) For the selection of the person to be recommended by employees as a member of the council of arbitration in matters foreign to railways, every trade and labor council, every district assembly of the knights of labor, every federated council of building trades, every lawfully incorporated trade union, every organization of wage-earners of an industrial calling primarily constituted, and actually and bona fide operated for the regulation of the wages and hours of labor, is entitled to one vote.

(c) For the selection of the person to be recommended by employees of railway companies as a member of the council of arbitration in mat-



ters connected with railways, every organization in the Province, whether incorporated or unincorporated, exclusively representing the interest of wage-earners employed in respect of railway construction or traffic on railways, is entitled to one vote.

(d) For the selection of the person to be recommended by railway companies as a member of the council of arbitration in matters referring to railways, every railway company controlling or running a line of railway in this Province is entitled to one vote.

(e) The registrar shall give notice in the Quebec Official Gazette, calling on all organizations and persons entitled to vote for the selection of a member to be recommended to either council, or claiming to be so entitled, to communicate with him on or before the 1st of August, 1901, and every second year thereafter. Such notice is to be inserted for at least four weeks before the said day in each of the said years.

(f) The registrar shall, after the 1st of August aforesaid, prepare a list of the persons and organizations appearing to be entitled to vote; and may refer any doubtful claim to the commissioner of public works for his advice or direction.

(g) Such list shall give the last known post office address of every person and organization entered thereon; shall be published in the Quebec Official Gazette, and shall be open to inspection at any time by any person, without fee, in the office of the registrar during office hours.

(h) Between the first and thirtieth days of September next, and between the same days of every second year thereafter, the registrar shall transmit by post to the address of each person and organization entitled to vote, a voting paper in the Form M, of this act.

(i) The voting paper of any person entitled to vote under this act as an employer shall be signed by himself or some person duly authorized in writing in that behalf; and the voting paper of any organization entitled to vote shall be signed by the president or vice-president of the organization, or, in the absence of such president or vice-president, by any office bearer of the organization other than the secretary thereof, and shall be countersigned by the secretary or acting secretary, or in the absence of such secretary or acting secretary by any two members not being office bearers. The voting papers of a board of trade shall be under the corporate seal of the board.

(j) The voting paper shall be forwarded in a stamped envelope addressed to the Registrar of Councils of Conciliation and Arbitration, Quebec, and endorsed "Voting paper under The Quebec Trade Disputes Act."

(k) Every voting paper shall be forwarded by mail or otherwise to the registrar, so as to be received by him on or before the fifteenth day of October in the year 1901, and every subsequent second fifteenth of October thereafter.

(l) Every voting paper received by the registrar after the time limited for the receipt of voting papers by the preceding paragraph is null.

(m) The registrar shall forthwith after the fifteenth of October, count the recommendations by or on behalf of employees or by or on behalf of employers for each council, and shall forward the same to the commissioner of public works, together with his report thereon; and the commissioner of public works, upon being satisfied of the accuracy of such report, shall publish in the Quebec Official Gazette the result of such recommendations, and the names of the persons appointed by the lieutenant-governor in council, to be members of the



councils of arbitration, and also the names of, and number of recommendations in favor of the five persons who have received the greater number of recommendations for each council on behalf of employers and employees respectively.

17. Any dispute may be referred to the appropriate council of arbitration for its hearing and determination in any of the following cases:

(a) On application to the registrar by either party to a dispute or claim which, having been referred to a council of conciliation, has not been settled or adjustable [adjusted] by such council;

(b) On application to the registrar by both parties to the dispute or claim within the meaning of this act, which has not been so referred to a council of conciliation.

18. If, in either case mentioned in the preceding article, the award of the council of arbitration is not complied with and carried out by the parties, or for any reason proves abortive, the parties to the reference or either of them shall not thereby be precluded from again referring the dispute to a council of conciliation.

19. Whenever a party to a dispute has lodged an application with the registrar requesting that the dispute be referred to a council of conciliation, and has appointed conciliators, and notice of the application and of the appointment of conciliators has been given to the other party, if such other party has not within a reasonable period appointed conciliators, and if the party lodging the application has not proceeded to a strike or lockout, as the case may be, the council of arbitration, if it thinks fit, may proceed as in case of an abortive reference to a council of conciliation, and such council may report its decision as to the settlement of the dispute in question.

20. In every case referred to a council of arbitration, the council shall have power to require, either of each party to the claim or dispute to name not more than three persons who upon their consent in writing being lodged with the registrar, shall for all purposes of the reference be taken to represent such party in the proceedings before the council.

21. The meetings of the council of arbitration are public.

The president shall, for the purpose of preserving order during any sitting of the council, have all the powers of a judge of the superior court save that he shall not have the power of committing for contempt.

The council of arbitration shall decide the disputes according to equity and good conscience.

22. (1) The award of the council of arbitration shall be made within one month after the council has completed its hearing of the reference; it shall be given by and under the hands of a majority of the members of the council.

(2) At the request of either party, and if the council of arbitration approves, a copy of the award is published by the registrar in the Quebec Official Gazette.

(3) The award, or a copy certified under the hand of the president of the council, is deposited in the office of the registrar, and shall be open to inspection without charge during office hours.

23. Either party to a dispute referred to either council of arbitration, may at any time before award made, by writing under the hands of such party, agree to be bound by the award of the council, in the same manner as parties are bound upon an award made pursuant to a submission under Chapter LXXIII of the Code of Civil Procedure agreeing to be bound by an award.



Every agreement of that nature made by one party shall be communicated to the other party by the registrar, and, if such other party also agree in like manner to be bound by the award, then the award becomes executory in accordance with article 1443 of the said Code.

#### SECTION IV.—*Miscellaneous provisions.*

24. For the purposes of this act, councils of conciliation and arbitration have power:

(a) To visit the locality where the dispute has arisen, and to hear all persons interested who may come before them;

(b) To summon any person to attend as a witness before the council, and in the case of any person summoned refusing to attend, application may be made in summary way to a justice of the peace having jurisdiction in the city, town or county wherein the council may be sitting for an order compelling such attendance; and such justice of the peace is hereby empowered to make such order as might be made in any case wherein such justice has power to compel appearance before the council, as he might compel such witness to appear before himself in matters governed by Part LVIII of the Criminal Code, 1892;

(c) To administer an oath or to take the affirmation of any person attending as a witness before the council, and to examine any such person on oath or affirmation.

25. No party to any dispute referred to a council of conciliation or a council of arbitration shall be represented by an advocate, or by any paid agent or agents other than one or more of the persons between whom the dispute or claim as [has] arisen.

26. No fees shall be paid to the registrar by any party in respect of any proceeding under this act.

27. Each member of any council of conciliation shall for his services be remunerated, out of the consolidated revenue fund of the Province, according to the following tariff:

Preliminary meeting .....	\$3. 00
Whole day sittings, subsequent meetings.....	4. 00
Half-day sittings, " " .....	2. 00

28. Witnesses before councils of conciliation and of arbitration shall be entitled to the same fees as in the superior court, payable out of the consolidated revenue fund of the Province.

29. The lieutenant-governor in council may make regulations for fixing the place where the councils of conciliation and arbitration shall sit, and for the purpose of giving effect to any of the provisions of this act.

Such regulations come into force on publication in the Quebec Official Gazette.

Such regulations shall be laid before the legislative council and before the legislative assembly within fourteen days after being published in the Quebec Official Gazette, if the legislature is then in session; and if not, within fourteen days from the date of the first day of the ensuing session.

30. No proceeding under this act shall be deemed invalid by reason of any defect or form of irregularity.

31. This act shall come into force on the day of its sanction.



RECENT REPORTS OF STATE BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

KANSAS.

*Sixteenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor and Industry for 1900.* W. L. A. Johnson, Commissioner. vi, 365, pp.

The contents of the present report are as follows: Wage-earner statistics, 144 pages; railway employees, 10 pages; labor organizations, 17 pages; flour-milling industry, 53 pages; lead, zinc, and gas statistics, 6 pages; factory inspection, 18 pages; strikes and labor difficulties, 22 pages; enforcement of labor laws, 45 pages; court decisions affecting labor, 3 pages; appendix, 40 pages.

STATISTICS OF WAGE-EARNERS.—The usual investigation was made with regard to the condition of wage-earners. Details are presented showing earnings, cost of living, hours of labor, conjugal condition, etc. The information was obtained directly from the wage earners. The following table shows, by occupation groups, the more important data presented:

STATISTICS OF WAGE-EARNERS, BY OCCUPATION GROUPS, 1900.

Occupation groups.	Average yearly wages.		Average yearly income from all sources.		Average yearly cost of living.		Days unemployed during year.	
	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Days unemployed.
Railway trainmen ..	105	\$947.13	105	\$980.08	94	\$688.49	72	95.0
Other railway employees .....	105	602.70	105	641.27	94	456.51	62	49.6
Building trades.....	74	487.52	74	520.64	65	375.14	71	93.7
Miscellaneous trades	175	519.54	175	559.47	143	414.29	127	65.3
Farm labor .....	35	205.81	35	218.95	33	122.35	28	51.0
All occupations	494	661.07	494	636.32	429	455.23	360	73.0

Of 472 wage-earners making returns, 268 reported increased opportunities for employment as compared with 1899, 53 reported decreased opportunities, and 151 reported conditions about the same. Of 446 returns, 156 reported increased wages, 37 reported decreased wages, and 252 reported no change in wages as compared with the preceding year. Of 467 returns, 86 reported increased hours of labor, 98 reported decreased hours, and 283 reported no change in the hours of labor as compared with the preceding year. The average hours of labor reported in 458 cases were 10.3 per day.



The returns are also classified by age periods, and in some occupations comparative data for a series of years ending with 1900 are given.

**RAILWAY EMPLOYEES.**—Statistics are given showing for 8 railroads in the State the number of employees, the total number of days they worked, and their average daily wages and yearly earnings.

**LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.**—The following table shows the number and membership of 116 labor organizations on December 31, 1900:

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS, DECEMBER 31, 1900.

Labor organizations.	Local unions or branches.	Members.
Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America.....	3	95
Amalgamated Wood Workers' International Union of North America.....	1	18
American Railway Union .....	1	10
Bricklayers and Masons' International Union.....	1	37
Brotherhood of Boiler Makers and Iron Shipbuilders of America.....	3	72
Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers .....	10	420
Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen.....	9	406
Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paper Hangers.....	4	114
Brotherhood of Railway Carmen of America.....	3	72
Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen.....	11	576
Brotherhood of Railway Trackmen of America .....	1	5
Building Laborers' International Protective Union .....	1	75
Cigar Makers' International Union .....	6	156
Coopers' International Union of North America .....	1	32
Federal Labor Union.....	8	271
International Association of Machinists.....	3	116
International Brotherhood of Blacksmiths.....	3	78
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers .....	1	11
International Brotherhood of Stationary Firemen .....	2	21
International Typographical Union .....	5	200
International Union of Stationary Engineers of America .....	2	43
Iron Molders' Union .....	1	20
Kansas State Barbers' Association .....	1	31
Order of Railway Conductors.....	8	389
Retail Clerks' International Protective Association .....	3	161
Switchmen's Union of North America.....	3	72
United Association of Journeymen Plumbers .....	1	20
United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America.....	5	324
United Brotherhood of Leather Workers on Horse Goods .....	1	18
United Mine Workers of America.....	12	2,433
Others.....	2	45
Total.....	116	6,341

Returns from 121 labor organizations were tabulated, but of these 5 did not report membership. The other 116 reported a total of 6,341 members on December 31, 1900. Fifty unions reported an aggregate increase of 680 members, and 25 reported a total decrease of 695 members. Of 117 unions reporting, 80 had agreements, schedules, or contracts with employers. The annual fees, aside from insurance, charged for membership in 112 unions reporting ranged from \$1 to \$20, the average cost per member per year being \$7.06. Returns from 112 unions showed that an average of 69.4 per cent of labor in the localities of these unions was organized. The members of 114 unions reporting were employed an average of 10.8 months during the year. The average working day of members of 102 unions was 9.4 hours. Of 121 unions, 78 reported increased opportunities for employment as compared with 1899, 16 reported decreased opportunities, and 27 reported no change. Of 107 unions, 38 reported increased wages, 1 decreased wages, and 68 reported no change as compared with 1899.



**THE MILLING INDUSTRY.**—This investigation covers returns from 200 flour mills and 77 elevators in the State. Tables are given showing, for each establishment reporting, the amount of capital invested, cost of production, quantity and value of product, persons employed, wages paid, and months in operation during the year 1900. The returns published were largely incomplete. There was an average of 1,524 persons employed during the year in 169 mills reporting. In 139 mills millers received an average of \$2.32 per day; other skilled laborers in 95 mills received an average of \$2.13 per day; and unskilled laborers in 158 mills received an average of \$1.26 per day. The average time in operation of 170 mills reporting was 9.6 months during the year.

The 77 elevators reported a total invested capital of \$817,546.40. There was an average of 173 persons employed during the year in 55 elevators reporting. The average daily wages paid skilled labor were \$1.66 per day in 15 establishments, and for unskilled labor, \$1.07 per day in 40 establishments. Fifty-one establishments reporting were in operation an average of 10.2 months during the year.

**THE LEAD AND ZINC INDUSTRY.**—This part of the report contains statistics of the output and value of the mine products in the State during the year 1900. Returns from 146 plants show an output of 10,868,317 pounds of lead, valued at \$271,140.65, and 103,520,258 pounds of zinc, valued at \$1,394,019.10. These figures show a decided decrease when compared with the preceding year.

**NATURAL GAS.**—An account is given of the development of the gas production in the State and of its effect upon the manufacturing industries.

**STRIKES AND LABOR DIFFICULTIES.**—Accounts are given of some of the more important strikes and other labor difficulties occurring in the State during the year, showing the causes, results, and other circumstances connected with the same.

## RHODE ISLAND.

*Thirteenth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Industrial Statistics, made to the general assembly at its January session, 1900.* Henry E. Tiepke, Commissioner. vii, 479 pp.

The present report treats of the following subjects: Professions, trades, and occupations of the qualified electors of the city of Pawtucket, 12 pages; commercial statistics of the port of Providence, 1894–1898, 4 pages; statistics of textile manufactures, 52 pages; jewelry and silverware manufactures, 48 pages; decisions of courts affecting labor, 309 pages; directory of jewelry manufacturers, 46 pages.

**PROFESSIONS, ETC., IN PAWTUCKET.**—This chapter consists of a statistical table showing by wards and voting districts the number of quali-



fied electors engaged in each of the various professions, trades, and other occupations in Pawtucket in 1899.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.—Tables are given showing quantity of commodities arriving and leaving the port of Providence by water during the years 1894 to 1898 and the vessels entering and leaving in 1897 and 1898.

TEXTILE MANUFACTURES.—Comparative statistics are given, based upon returns made in the years 1897 and 1898 by 151 establishments engaged in textile industries. Of the establishments reporting, 76 were engaged in the manufacture of cotton goods, 9 in hosiery and knit goods, 14 in bleaching, dyeing, and printing, 3 in silk goods, and 49 in woolen goods.

Following is a summary of the figures presented:

STATISTICS OF 151 TEXTILE MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, 1897 AND 1898.

Items.	1897.	1898.	Increase.	
			Amount.	Per cent.
Firms .....	59	58	a 1	a 1.69
Corporations .....	92	93	1	1.09
Partners and stockholders .....	1,545	1,588	43	2.78
Capital invested .....	\$54,883,565	\$54,802,955	a \$80,610	a .15
Value of material used .....	\$29,952,521	\$28,750,609	a \$1,201,912	a 4.01
Value of goods made and work done .....	\$49,471,309	\$49,903,267	\$431,958	.87
Aggregate wages paid .....	\$12,398,056	\$12,219,058	a \$178,998	a 1.44
Average days in operation .....	282.17	282.66	0.49	.17
Employees:				
Average number .....	36,885	37,114	229	.62
Greatest number .....	39,348	39,982	634	1.61
Smallest number .....	32,736	33,053	317	.97
Average yearly earnings .....	\$336.13	\$329.23	a \$6.90	a 2.05

a Decrease.

JEWELRY AND SILVERWARE MANUFACTURES.—Statistics are given of the capital invested, value of materials used and of goods made and work done, wages and salaries paid, persons employed, etc., in each of the various branches of the jewelry and silverware manufacturing industries in the State for 1899.

Following is a general summary of the statistics given:

STATISTICS OF JEWELRY AND SILVERWARE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1899.

Industries.	Estab-lish-ments report-ing.	Capital in-vested.	Value of material used.	Value of goods made and work done.	Wages and salaries paid.	Other expendi-tures.	Persons em-ployed.
Jewelry .....	142	\$5,874,134	\$3,644,929	\$9,640,485	\$2,945,564	\$698,133	5,927
Silverware .....	9	3,180,048	1,418,258	4,111,750	1,103,291	542,350	1,710
Jewelers' findings .....	27	975,494	1,220,252	1,827,791	265,324	93,472	517
Refining .....	11	444,429	3,000,760	3,354,922	70,331	94,941	92
Electroplating .....	12	53,970	61,560	145,194	44,887	21,690	116
Enameling .....	12	33,725	8,885	113,904	60,663	7,252	181
Engraving and chasing ..	17	12,625	.....	52,060	21,855	5,578	43
Die-sinking .....	13	39,050	13,890	84,280	39,333	7,440	61
Lapidaries .....	6	41,752	13,797	114,941	51,641	18,313	120
Total .....	249	10,655,227	9,382,331	19,445,327	4,602,889	1,489,169	8,767

DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR.—This chapter is devoted to a reproduction of the decisions published in the bulletins of the United States Department of Labor during the year 1899.

## VIRGINIA.

*Third Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics for the State of Virginia, 1900.* James B. Doherty, Commissioner. 287 pp.

This is the second report published by the bureau since its creation, but as it is issued for the third year of the bureau's existence, it is designated as the third annual report. Its contents may be grouped as follows: Gas plants, waterworks, and electric light and power plants, 44 pages; manufactures, 118 pages; railroads, 12 pages; coal industry, 3 pages; liability of employers, 28 pages; labor bills, 12 pages; the New Zealand industrial conciliation and arbitration act, 1894, 23 pages; trade unions, 37 pages; trade notes, 5 pages; reformatories, 3 pages.

GAS PLANTS, WATERWORKS, AND ELECTRIC LIGHT AND POWER PLANTS.—The information given in this part of the report relates to the character of ownership, whether municipal or private, the character of the service, equipment, systems of distribution, cost of service, taxation, legislative conditions under which plants are operated, number and wages of employees, etc., of all gas, water, and electric lighting plants for which information could be obtained.

MANUFACTURES.—Statistical tables and analyses are given for each of 16 industries in the State. The data relate to the value of goods made, capital invested, cost of material used, value of stock on hand at the close of the year, days in operation, persons employed, total wages paid, average daily wages and hours of labor, etc., during the year 1899. The statistics cover the following industries: Artificial ice, baking powders, boxes, breweries, cigarettes and cigars, cotton mills, fish oil, iron foundries, knitting mills, paper and pulp mills, pickles, printing and engraving, shirts and underwear, staves and cooperage, and tobacco and woolen mills.

RAILROADS.—Tables are given showing the number of employees, days worked, and wages paid by each of the 23 steam railroads operating in the State. Statistics of accidents on these railroads are also given.

COAL INDUSTRY.—The statistics given under this head were compiled from United States Government reports.

LIABILITY OF EMPLOYERS.—This chapter consists of a reproduction of an article published in Bulletin No. 31 of this Department.

LABOR BILLS.—Under this head are reproduced a number of the most important bills affecting labor that were presented at the last session of the State legislature.



ORGANIZED LABOR.—Inquiries were sent to 182 trade unions in the State, but of these only 121 responded. The following table shows the number and membership of these organizations and the number of members employed on November 1, 1900:

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND MEMBERS EMPLOYED ON NOVEMBER 1, 1900, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Occupations.	Local unions or branches.	Members-ship.	Members employed November 1, 1900.	Occupations.	Local unions or branches.	Members-ship.	Members employed November 1, 1900.
Bakers .....	1	36	36	Leather workers....	1	25	25
Barbers.....	1	22	22	Letter carriers.....	1	46	46
Bartenders .....	1	27	27	Longshoremen.....	1	100	100
Blacksmiths.....	3	148	148	Machinists.....	9	609	603
Blacksmiths' helpers.	1	25	25	Molders.....	2	196	193
Boiler makers.....	2	467	467	Musicians.....	2	60	(c) 193
Boiler makers' helpers	1	41	41	Overall makers.....	1	18	18
Brakemen.....	3	206	203	Painters and deco-			
Brewery workers.....	3	108	108	rators .....	4	326	298
Bricklayers.....	4	260	244	Pattern makers.....	1	22	22
Car builders and re-				Plasterers.....	2	74	74
pairers .....	3	273	273	Plumbers .....	2	72	72
Carpenters and mill				Printers.....	7	321	282
men .....	9	986	969	Seamen .....	1	1,300	1,300
Cigar makers.....	3	140	138	Slate and tin roofers.	1	10	10
Clerks, retail.....	3	178	144	Stove mounters.....	1	14	14
Conductors, train-				Tailors.....	2	79	79
men, and switch-				Textile workers.....	1	800	800
men .....	5	249	249	Theatrical employ-			
Core makers.....	2	43	39	ees .....	1	27	27
Electrical workers ...	2	113	113	Tinsmiths.....	3	124	122
Engineers .....	11	616	596	Tobacco workers....	6	1,398	1,334
Federal union (a) ....	1	40	40	Trunk and bag			
Firemen.....	7	386	b 354	makers.....	1	30	30
Glass blowers.....	2	45	45				
Granite cutters.....	1	12	10				
Laborers .....	1	13	13				
Lathers, wood and							
metal.....	1	20	20				
				Total.....	121	10,105	d 9,773

a Including various occupations.

b One trade union, with a membership of 22, not reporting.

c Not reported.

d Three trade unions, with a membership of 82, not reporting.

## RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

### AUSTRIA.

*Systematisches Verzeichnis der Gewerbe und anderer gewerbemässig ausgeübter Beschäftigungen für statistische Zwecke der Handels- und Gewerbekammern in den im Reichsrathe vertretenen Königreichen und Ländern. Zweite revidierte Auflage. 1900. 147 pp.*

The present volume, which is intended as a reference book for the use of the chambers of commerce and industry, is a revised edition of a publication issued in 1896. It contains a classified list not only of all occupations in the countries represented in the Austrian Parliament which come within the scope of the industrial code (*Gewerbeordnung*), as in the case of the first edition, but also of all other enterprises and branches of industry which are subject to the provisions of the income-tax law. The present report contains 10,267 quotations of occupations and industries. These are classified into two general divisions, the first covering 6,571 quotations relating to the production of raw materials and manufacturing, and the second containing 3,696 quotations relating to commerce, transportation, and other industries. The industries in the first division are subdivided into 19 and those in the second division into 6 principal groups. These principal groups are again subdivided into minor groups. In a second list the individual quotations of occupations and industries are arranged alphabetically.

### GREAT BRITAIN.

*Eighth Annual Report on Changes in Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in the United Kingdom. 1900. xciv, 273 pp. (Published by the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade.)*

This is the eighth of a series of annual reports dealing with the changes in the market rates of wages and recognized hours of labor of working people in the United Kingdom for a full week's work, exclusive of overtime. The changes of this character are shown in detailed tables and in summaries showing the facts with regard to each trade and group of trades classified in various ways. The report also contains piece-price statements and sliding-wage scales agreed upon in 1900 and the principal amendments to similar statements which were



in operation before the beginning of that year. The changes recorded in the present report are based upon returns from employees' and employers' associations, trade unions, local correspondents of the department, and official sources. These returns show that at the end of the year 1900 the general level of wages in the United Kingdom stood higher than in any other year for which statistics exist and that the rate of increase during the year 1900 was unprecedentedly high. The year as a whole was characterized by good trade, steady employment, and freedom from disputes of any considerable magnitude, although some signs of decline in the labor market were observable toward the end of the year.

The tables following summarize the principal data contained in the returns for the years 1893 to 1900:

CHANGES IN RATES OF WAGES, AND EMPLOYEES AFFECTED, 1893 TO 1900.

Year.	Changes in rates of wages.	Separate individuals affected by—			Total indi- viduals affected by changes in rates of wages.	Average weekly in- crease in rates of wages.
		Increases in rates of wages.	Decreases in rates of wages.	Changes leaving wages same at end as at beginning of year.		
1893 .....	706	142,364	256,473	151,140	549,977	\$0.112
1894 .....	779	175,615	488,357	6,414	670,386	a. 330
1895 .....	804	79,867	351,895	4,956	436,718	a. 314
1896 .....	1,607	382,225	167,357	58,072	607,654	.213
1897 .....	1,518	560,707	13,855	22,882	597,444	.259
1898 .....	1,406	1,003,290	11,865	14	1,015,169	.385
1899 .....	1,593	1,174,444	1,132	.....	1,175,576	.375
1900 .....	1,418	1,112,684	23,010	92	1,135,786	.897

a Decrease.

CHANGES IN HOURS OF LABOR AND EMPLOYEES AFFECTED, 1893 TO 1900.

Year.	Changes in hours of labor.	Separate individuals affected by—		Total indi- viduals affected by changes in hours of labor.	Average weekly re- duction in hours of labor.
		Increases in hours of labor.	Decreases in hours of labor.		
1893.....	155	1,530	33,119	34,649	1.99
1894.....	221	128	77,030	77,158	4.04
1895.....	141	1,287	21,448	22,735	1.94
1896.....	245	73,616	34,655	108,271	.73
1897.....	254	1,060	69,572	70,632	4.03
1898.....	202	1,277	37,772	39,049	2.10
1899.....	209	2,600	33,349	35,949	3.54
1900.....	158	869	56,857	57,726	4.12

The data shown in the above tables, as well as in the detailed tables, do not include returns regarding agricultural laborers, seamen, and railroad employees, which are separately treated in the report.

CHANGES IN RATES OF WAGES.—The unit adopted for comparison is the rate of wages for a full week's work, exclusive of overtime, at the end of 1900, compared with a similar week at the end of 1899.

During the year 1900 1,135,786 persons were affected by wage changes, of whom 1,112,684, or 97.97 per cent, had their wages

increased; 23,010, or 2.02 per cent, suffered a reduction, and 92, or 0.01 per cent, were affected by changes leaving the wages the same at the end as at the beginning of the year. The net result of these changes was an aggregate rise of £209,373 (\$1,018,914) per week, compared with a rise of £90,905 (\$442,389) in 1899, and a rise of £80,815 (\$393,286) in 1898. The net increase per week per employee affected by changes in wages was 3s. 8½d. (\$0.897) in 1900, compared with 1s. 6½d. (\$0.375) in 1899 and 1s. 7d. (\$0.385) in 1898.

The following table shows, by industries, the number of changes in the rates of wages in 1900, and the number of employees affected:

CHANGES IN RATES OF WAGES AND EMPLOYEES AFFECTED, BY INDUSTRIES, 1900.

Industries.	Changes in rates of wages.	Separate individuals affected by—			Total individuals affected by changes in rates of wages.	Average weekly increase in rates of wages.
		Increases in rates of wages.	Decreases in rates of wages.	Changes leaving wages same at end as at beginning of year.		
Building.....	350	69,863	8,697	40	78,600	\$0.411
Mining and quarrying.....	175	701,419	4,018	.....	705,437	1.161
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	399	88,196	7,037	52	95,285	.831
Textile.....	68	125,089	.....	.....	125,089	.233
Clothing.....	42	8,481	.....	.....	8,481	.527
Miscellaneous.....	195	87,902	3,249	.....	91,151	.456
Employees of public authorities.....	189	31,734	9	.....	31,743	.395
Total.....	1,418	1,112,684	23,010	92	1,135,786	.897

As in previous years the most prominent feature of the changes in rates of wages in 1900 was the rise of miners' wages, the group of mining and quarrying showing a total of 701,419 individual employees whose wages were increased, and but 4,018 whose wages were reduced. In the textile industry 125,089 employees had their wages increased, and none suffered a reduction.

The net results of these changes in rates of wages during a period of eight years are shown by industries in the following table:

AVERAGE INCREASE IN RATES OF WAGES, BY INDUSTRIES, 1893 to 1900.

Industries.	Average increase per employee per week.							
	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.
Building.....	\$0.360	\$0.345	\$0.411	\$0.502	\$0.517	\$0.502	\$0.487	\$0.411
Mining and quarrying.....	.228	a.421	a.461	a.127	.132	.416	.395	1.161
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	a.218	a.157	.005	.370	.269	.279	.634	.831
Textile.....	a.086	.112	.046	.020	.041	a.086	.122	.233
Clothing.....	.385	.335	.502	.314	.476	.091	.274	.527
Miscellaneous.....	a.020	a.076	a.127	.416	.507	.390	.390	.456
Employees of public authorities.....	.380	.360	.390	.294	.350	.345	.284	.395
Total.....	.112	a.330	a.314	.213	.259	.385	.375	.897

a Decrease.

The net increase in 1900 was more than twice as great as the increase in any other year of the eight-year period. The industry group of mining and quarrying shows the greatest increase per employee, namely, 4s. 9½d. (\$1.161). The slightest net increase per employee occurred



in the group of textiles, namely, 11½d. (\$0.233). The groups of building trades, clothing, and employees of public authorities show an unbroken succession of net increases in rates of wages for each year of the period.

The groups of agricultural laborers, railway employees, and seamen have been separately considered in the report, owing to the difficulty in obtaining returns of the precise number of persons affected by changes in wage rates in these industries.

Information regarding the wages of agricultural laborers in England and Wales was obtained mainly from the chairmen of rural district councils. In the report the current rates of weekly cash wages in January and June, 1900, are compared with those returned for corresponding dates in 1899. The returns received were exclusive of piece-work earnings and extra payments and allowances of any kind. Figures presented for a series of years show that the improvement in the rates of wages of agricultural laborers has continued steadily since 1896. The districts in which an increase in wages was reported for 1900 contained 281,262 laborers, or 86,071 more than the corresponding number for 1899. No decreases were reported in 1900, the number affected by decreases in wages having fallen off year by year since 1895. The total effect of these changes was an increase of £9,939 (\$48,368.14) per week, or 8½d. (\$0.172) per employee of those affected, or ½d. (\$0.01) more than in 1899. Calculated on the total number of agricultural laborers in England and Wales, the rise per employee in 1900 amounted to 3¼d. (\$0.066) per week. The returns for Scotland were based on information obtained from hiring fairs, and also from a number of representative employers. At the yearly and half-yearly hiring fairs held in the spring or early summer of 1900, the wages of men frequently rose at the rate of about 20s. (\$4.87) to 50s. (\$12.17) and sometimes as much as 60s. (\$14.60) per annum. The wages of women and boys also generally increased. At the hiring fairs held between August and December the old rates were maintained in most cases, and where changes took place increases were more numerous than decreases. Reports from Ireland show a slight upward tendency in the wages of farm laborers.

The rates of wages of seamen are based upon returns furnished by superintendents of the mercantile marine in the various ports of the Kingdom. The monthly wages on steamships show the following changes: Able seamen, from 82s. 8d. (\$20.11) in 1899 to 82s. 5d. (\$20.05) in 1900, a decrease of 3d. (\$0.061); firemen and trimmers, from 87s. 2d. (\$21.21) in 1899 to 87s. 1d. (\$21.19) in 1900, a decrease of 1d. (\$0.02). The monthly wages of able seamen on sailing vessels increased from 59s. 10d. (\$14.56) in 1899 to 60s. 7d. (\$14.74) in 1900, or 9d. (\$0.183). The rates of wages given are in addition to food.

In determining the wages of railway servants a different method has been followed than that adopted for other groups of trades, the actual earnings being considered instead of the wage rates, because in the



British railway service the remuneration is usually regulated by graduated scales of pay rather than by fixed wage rates. It is intended to indicate the total effect of all changes in the earnings of railway employees, whether arising out of real changes in the scale of pay, ordinary advances under existing scales, or overtime or short time. Returns are published from 29 companies, employing together over 90 per cent of the railway employees in the United Kingdom. The returns summarized in the following table cover the number of employees and the average wages for the first week in December of each year from 1896 to 1900 in the passenger, freight, locomotive, and machinery construction departments:

AVERAGE WAGES PAID RAILWAY EMPLOYEES IN 29 COMPANIES, FIRST WEEK IN DECEMBER, 1896 TO 1900.

Year.	Total employees.	Total wages.	Average wages.
1896.....	380,114	\$2,220,973.27	\$5.84
1897.....	398,108	2,362,539.76	5.94
1898.....	412,304	2,471,753.75	6.00
1899.....	431,858	2,653,556.46	6.14
1900.....	440,347	2,686,025.74	6.10

These figures show that while there was a gradual rise in average earnings during the four-year period from 1896 to 1899, the average earnings of railway servants during the first week of December, 1900, included in the returns, were 2¼d. (\$0.046) less than in the first week of December, 1899. This does not necessarily show a decline in actual wage rates, as earnings may be affected by other causes, such as amount of overtime, etc.

CHANGES IN HOURS OF LABOR.—During the year 1900 a net reduction, averaging 4.12 hours, took place in the weekly hours of labor of 57,726 employees, of whom 869 had their hours increased an average of 1.64 per week, and 56,857 had their hours decreased by 4.21 per week.

The following table shows for the years 1893 to 1900 the number of employees affected by changes in hours of labor, classified according to the extent per week of such changes:

EMPLOYEES AFFECTED BY CHANGES IN HOURS OF LABOR, BY EXTENT OF CHANGE PER WEEK, 1893 TO 1900.

Year.	Employees whose hours per week were—								Total.
	Increased.		Decreased.						
	Under 1 hour.	1 hour or over.	Under 1 hour.	1 or under 2 hours.	2 or under 4 hours.	4 or under 6 hours.	6 or under 8 hours.	8 hours or over.	
1893.....	480	1,050	5,538	9,800	15,058	1,491	1,011	221	34,649
1894.....		128	2,686	4,141	37,535	9,536	20,504	2,628	77,158
1895.....		1,287	2,961	9,675	5,235	1,926	1,229	422	22,735
1896.....	71,899	1,717	4,871	10,695	11,939	2,200	3,301	1,649	108,271
1897.....	705	355	9,468	30,636	11,534	6,303	5,658	5,973	70,632
1898.....	944	333	10,213	8,553	13,871	2,710	2,260	165	39,049
1899.....	2,050	550	4,203	9,662	9,557	3,733	1,885	4,309	35,949
1900.....	585	284	6,185	7,393	13,514	582	28,149	1,034	57,726



The number of persons obtaining an eight-hour day during 1900, 27,708, was greater than in any year since 1894. There were no reversions from an eight-hour day to longer hours of labor.

The following table shows, by industries, the number of changes in the hours of labor and the number of employees affected during the year 1900:

CHANGES IN HOURS OF LABOR AND EMPLOYEES AFFECTED, BY INDUSTRIES, 1900.

Industries.	Changes in hours of labor.	Separate individuals affected by—		Total indi- viduals affected by changes in hours of labor.	Average weekly re- duction in hours of labor.
		Increases in hours of labor.	Decreases in hours of labor.		
Building .....	64	735	8,376	9,111	0.88
Mining and quarrying .....	6	.....	27,610	27,610	6.00
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding..	24	.....	3,792	3,792	4.06
Textile .....	3	.....	79	79	2.50
Clothing .....	6	.....	2,306	2,306	2.67
Miscellaneous .....	37	134	12,153	12,287	2.45
Employees of public authorities .....	18	.....	2,541	2,541	4.93
Total .....	158	869	56,857	57,726	4.12

It will be observed that nearly one-half the persons affected by changes in hours of labor in 1900 were employees in the group of mining and quarrying industries. This is due to an average reduction of six hours per week in the case of 26,500 coal miners and surface workers in Lanarkshire, Scotland, made on May 14, 1900.

METHODS OF ARRANGEMENT OF CHANGES.—The changes in the wages and hours of labor reported in 1900 were arranged by mutual agreement of the parties concerned or their representatives, by conciliation or mediation, by arbitration, and in the case of wage changes only, by the sliding wage scales.

The following table shows the number of persons affected by changes in wages and hours of labor during each year from 1896 to 1900, classified according to the agencies by which the changes were arranged:

METHODS BY WHICH CHANGES IN WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR WERE ARRANGED, 1896 TO 1900.

Year.	Separate individuals affected by changes arranged without strikes.					Separate individuals affected by changes arranged after strikes.			
	Under sliding scale.	By con- ciliation or me- diation.	By arbi- tration.	By mu- tual ar- range- ment or other- wise.	Total.	By con- ciliation or me- diation.	By arbi- tration.	By mu- tual ar- range- ment or other- wise.	Total.
CHANGES IN WAGES.									
1896.....	136,288	43,601	4,920	367,124	551,933	11,559	174	43,988	55,721
1897.....	135,618	11,796	307	405,492	553,213	1,460	1,959	40,812	44,231
1898.....	169,093	25,659	3,850	764,622	963,134	1,015	2,050	48,970	52,035
1899.....	178,018	364,616	11,636	587,033	1,141,303	1,581	1,452	31,240	34,273
1900.....	183,889	469,520	5,827	421,590	1,080,826	1,030	3,780	50,150	54,960
CHANGES IN HOURS.									
1896.....	.....	300	1,500	85,474	87,274	2,758	.....	18,239	20,997
1897.....	.....	1,200	712	62,404	64,316	46	36	6,234	6,316
1898.....	.....	4,427	3,570	26,593	34,590	450	2,050	1,959	4,459
1899.....	.....	65	1,100	28,534	29,699	100	34	6,116	6,250
1900.....	.....	1,440	626	52,574	54,640	.....	285	2,801	3,086



The increase in the number of employees whose wage changes were arranged by conciliation or mediation and arbitration in recent years is largely accounted for by the formation of conciliation boards in the coal industry, every important coal-mining district, with the exception of one where a sliding wage scale exists, having established a board consisting of representatives of the organized employers and the organized employees.

Changes in piece-price lists were made during 1900 in the metal, textile, boot and shoe, clog making, tailoring, hat, printing, coopering, glass bottle, basket making, leather, and transportation industries. Only one new sliding scale, which was for blast-furnace men, was reported in 1900. Of the entire number of persons whose wages were changed during the year 1900, 183,889, or 16.2 per cent, had them changed by operation of the sliding wage scale. Of these employees 125,000 were coal miners, and 58,889 were blast-furnace men, iron and steel workers, iron miners, and quarrymen.

Most of the changes in rates of wages and hours of labor in 1900 were arranged without disputes involving a cessation of work, only 4.8 per cent of the persons affected by wage changes, and 5.3 per cent of those affected by changes in hours of labor, having resorted to strikes before obtaining the change.

*Report of the Chief Labor Correspondent on the Strikes and Lockouts of 1900, with Statistical Tables.* 1901. xciii, 120 pp. (Published by the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade.)

This is the thirteenth annual report on strikes and lockouts in the United Kingdom, prepared by the chief labor correspondent of the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade. The report contains a detailed statement; showing for each dispute beginning in 1900 the locality, the number of establishments involved, the number and occupations of employees thrown out of work, the cause or object of the dispute, the date of beginning and ending, and the result; also detailed statements of the work of boards of conciliation and arbitration and of certain agreements and awards terminating trade disputes. The detailed statements are preceded by summary tables, comparative data for recent years, and an analysis of the statistics of strikes and lockouts and of conciliation and arbitration. The general method of inquiry pursued and the plan of presentation have been the same as during the past few years. Disputes involving less than 10 employees and those which lasted less than one day have been omitted from the tabulations, except when the aggregate duration exceeded 100 working days.

**STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN 1900.**—The number of strikes and lockouts in 1900 shows a considerable falling off when compared with 1899 or any other of the years for which statistics for comparison are avail-



able. The number of employees thrown out of work and the aggregate days of duration, however, were greater than in 1899, though much less than in 1897 and 1898. There were, in 1900, 648 strikes and lockouts, involving 135,145 strikers and employees locked out and 53,393 other employees thrown out of work, and causing an aggregate loss of 3,152,694 working days.

The disputes in 1900, as in previous years, were mostly due to wages, 438 out of a total of 648 strikes and lockouts resulting chiefly from this cause. Of the total of 135,145 strikers and employees locked out in disputes from all causes, 82,903, or 61.3 per cent, were involved in wage disputes; 19,573, or 14.5 per cent, in disputes due to questions of trade unionism; 18,956, or 14.0 per cent, in disputes relating to working arrangements, rules, and discipline; 10,427, or 7.7 per cent, in dispute relating to employment of particular classes or persons; 1,018, or 0.8 per cent, in sympathetic disputes; 718, or 0.5 per cent, in disputes relating to hours of labor, and 1,550, or 1.2 per cent, in disputes due to other causes.

The following tables show the number of strikes and lockouts and the number of employees involved in 1900, classified according to the principal causes, and the results:

#### STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, 1900.

[Under "Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" is included the number of days lost on account of strikes and lockouts ending in 1900, regardless of time of beginning.]

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts the results of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages.....	128	137	164	9	438	2,387,096
Hours of labor .....	1	2	3	.....	6	55,444
Employment of particular classes or persons .....	29	30	32	2	93	272,479
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline .....	16	21	18	2	57	244,665
Trade unionism.....	24	17	3	1	45	162,195
Sympathetic disputes.....	1	4	.....	.....	5	18,160
Other causes.....	3	.....	1	.....	4	12,655
Total.....	202	211	221	14	648	3,152,694

#### STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1900.

Principal cause or object.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes, the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages .....	16,886	20,360	44,197	1,460	82,903	34,648
Hours of labor .....	69	75	574	.....	718	7,140
Employment of particular classes or persons ..	3,523	1,976	4,892	36	10,427	3,483
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline ..	2,220	9,284	4,352	3,100	18,956	3,882
Trade unionism.....	17,241	1,107	1,175	50	19,573	1,515
Sympathetic disputes.....	323	695	.....	.....	1,018	20
Other causes.....	350	.....	1,200	.....	1,550	2,700
Total.....	40,612	33,497	56,390	4,646	135,145	53,393

Of the 648 disputes, 202 resulted in favor of the employees, 211 in favor of the employers, 221 were compromised, and 14 remained indefinite or unsettled. Of the 135,145 strikers and employees locked out, 40,612, or 30.1 per cent, were engaged in disputes which resulted in favor of employees; 33,497, or 24.8 per cent, in disputes which resulted in favor of employers; 56,390, or 41.7 per cent, in disputes that were compromised, and 4,646, or 3.4 per cent, in disputes which remained indefinite or unsettled at the close of the year. Employees involved in sympathetic disputes were mostly unsuccessful, and nearly half of those engaged in disputes due to working arrangements, rules, and discipline were unsuccessful, while a majority of those engaged in disputes for the other principal causes were either wholly or partly successful.

In 1900, as in previous years, the great majority of disputes affected comparatively few working people. This is shown in the following table:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY GROUPS OF EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1900.  
[Under "Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" is included the number of days lost on account of strikes and lockouts beginning in 1900, regardless of time of ending.]

Groups of employees thrown out of work.	Strikes and lockouts.	Employees thrown out of work.		Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.	
		Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
5,000 or over .....	4	36,470	19.3	714,000	19.9
2,500 or under 5,000 .....	5	16,536	8.8	593,835	16.6
1,000 or under 2,500 .....	31	44,044	23.4	472,813	13.2
500 or under 1,000 .....	43	27,845	14.8	700,860	19.5
250 or under 500 .....	82	27,250	14.4	480,119	13.4
100 or under 250 .....	148	23,902	12.7	388,578	10.8
50 or under 100 .....	98	6,708	3.6	114,005	3.2
25 or under 50 .....	111	3,858	2.0	81,925	2.3
Under 25 .....	126	1,925	1.0	39,400	1.1
Total .....	648	188,538	100.0	3,585,535	100.0

Thus, out of 648 disputes, 335, or 52 per cent, involved less than 100 employees each, or only 6.6 per cent of all the employees thrown out of work, and about the same percentage of the time lost in all the disputes of the year; while, on the other hand, the four largest disputes involved 36,470, or 19.3 per cent of the employees thrown out of work, and 19.9 per cent of the time lost in all the disputes of the year. In 1900, as in the previous year, there was no single dispute of any great magnitude.



The following table shows the extent to which each of the various groups of industries was involved in the strikes and lockouts in 1900 and the results of the disputes in each case:

## STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, 1900.

[Under "Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" is included the number of days lost on account of strikes and lockouts ending in 1900, regardless of time of beginning.]

Industries.	Strikes and lockouts the results of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	50	47	46	3	146	726, 626
Mining and quarrying.....	49	25	59	3	136	552, 932
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	23	49	37	2	111	349, 130
Textile.....	36	25	33	2	96	411, 363
Clothing.....	14	14	8	2	38	60, 121
Transportation.....	9	23	18	.....	50	303, 780
Miscellaneous.....	17	25	17	1	60	740, 272
Employees of local authorities.....	4	3	3	1	11	8, 465
Total.....	202	211	221	14	648	3, 152, 694

## STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, 1900.

Industries.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	4, 660	6, 549	4, 790	274	16, 273	2, 905
Mining and quarrying.....	24, 682	4, 273	13, 378	3, 122	45, 455	28, 909
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	2, 072	3, 374	4, 814	140	10, 400	9, 410
Textile.....	5, 571	4, 647	5, 030	323	15, 571	8, 572
Clothing.....	821	393	151	760	2, 125	29
Transportation.....	1, 575	12, 460	6, 258	.....	20, 293	2, 733
Miscellaneous.....	1, 071	1, 265	21, 887	7	24, 230	738
Employees of public authorities.....	160	536	82	20	798	97
Total.....	40, 612	33, 497	56, 390	4, 646	135, 145	53, 393

The group of building trades shows the largest number of disputes, although the largest number of employees thrown out of work is found in the group of mining and quarrying. The largest measure of success on the part of employees was attained in the mining and quarrying industry, 24,682, or 54.3 per cent of the entire number of strikers and employees locked out having been entirely successful. A large majority of the employees engaged in disputes in the transportation service and in the public service failed completely.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS DURING FIVE YEARS.—During the period from 1896 to 1900 there was a yearly average of 774 strikes and lockouts, in which there was an average of 157,875 strikers and employees locked out.

The figures for 1900 are much below these yearly averages. The following table gives some of the principal strike statistics for each year from 1896 to 1900, inclusive:

STATISTICS OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, 1896 TO 1900.

[Under "Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" is included the number of days lost on account of strikes and lockouts ending during the specified year, regardless of time of beginning.]

Year.	Strikes and lockouts.	Strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.	Total employees thrown out of work.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
1896.....	926	147,950	50,240	198,190	3,746,368
1897.....	864	167,453	62,814	230,267	10,345,523
1898.....	711	200,769	53,138	253,907	15,289,478
1899.....	719	138,058	42,159	180,217	2,516,416
1900.....	648	135,145	53,393	188,538	3,152,694

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts and the employees thrown out of work during each year from 1896 to 1900, by industries:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1896 TO 1900.

Industries.	Strikes and lockouts.					Employees thrown out of work.				
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.
Building.....	171	193	183	180	146	33,312	15,047	16,684	30,524	19,178
Mining and quarrying.....	171	127	129	109	136	67,197	49,392	177,029	46,831	74,364
Metal, engineering, and ship-building.....	266	229	152	140	111	48,137	97,189	21,432	21,119	19,810
Textile.....	153	108	99	124	96	33,656	37,001	24,978	61,499	24,143
Clothing.....	48	56	53	37	38	3,969	7,016	3,561	2,258	2,154
Transportation.....	25	48	22	47	50	3,312	12,523	3,478	12,611	23,026
Miscellaneous.....	87	95	67	71	60	8,070	11,734	6,261	4,212	24,968
Employees of public authorities.....	5	8	6	11	11	537	365	484	1,163	895
Total.....	926	864	711	719	648	198,190	230,267	253,907	180,217	188,538

This table shows that in each year except 1897 and 1899 the mining and quarrying industry supplied the largest number of employees involved in disputes. In 1897 the great dispute of the year was in the engineering trade, while in 1899 a large number of employees were effected by a dispute in the jute industry.

The following table shows the principal causes of strikes and lockouts, and the number of disputes and employees directly involved in each cause, from 1896 to 1900:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY PRINCIPAL CAUSES, 1896 TO 1900.

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.
Wages.....	579	532	449	469	438	95,975	73,906	176,392	94,651	82,903
Hours of labor.....	22	20	19	17	6	2,355	39,227	777	3,857	718
Employment of particular classes or persons.....	144	121	87	102	93	22,745	14,840	9,203	8,187	10,427
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline.....	96	119	94	68	57	17,533	29,068	11,742	17,895	18,956
Trade unionism.....	64	49	51	46	45	5,279	6,327	2,215	5,130	19,573
Sympathetic disputes.....	16	20	8	24	5	3,864	3,796	345	8,233	1,018
Other causes.....	5	3	3	2	4	199	289	95	105	1,550
Total.....	926	864	711	719	648	147,950	167,453	200,769	138,058	135,145



During this five-year period 63.5 per cent of all the strikes and lock-outs were due to wages. Next in the order of importance were disputes relating to the employment of particular classes of persons, to working arrangements, rules, and discipline, to trade unionism, and to hours of labor.

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts and the strikers and employees locked out each year from 1896 to 1900, classified according to results:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY RESULTS, 1896 TO 1900.

Result.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.
In favor of employees.....	378	331	238	230	202	64,355	40,464	45,490	33,808	40,612
In favor of employers.....	302	307	227	245	211	41,431	68,159	120,667	60,275	33,497
Compromised .....	243	215	243	236	221	41,905	56,897	34,501	40,237	56,390
Indefinite or unsettled.....	3	11	3	8	14	259	1,933	111	738	4,646
Total.....	926	864	711	719	648	147,950	167,453	200,769	138,058	135,145

Of the 3,868 disputes reported during the five-year period, 1,379, or 35.7 per cent, resulted in favor of the employees; 1,292, or 33.4 per cent, resulted in favor of employers; 1,158, or 29.9 per cent, were compromised, and 39, or 1 per cent, remained indefinite or unsettled. Of 789,375 strikers and employees locked out during the period, 227,729, or 28.9 per cent, were engaged in disputes resulting in favor of employees; 324,029, or 41 per cent, in disputes resulting in favor of employers; 229,930, or 29.1 per cent, in disputes which were compromised, and 7,687, or 1 per cent, in disputes which remained indefinite or unsettled.

In the following table the disputes beginning in each of the years 1896 to 1900 and the employees thrown out of work are classified according to the various methods of settlement:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY METHOD OF SETTLEMENT, 1896 TO 1900.

Method of settlement.	Strikes and lockouts.					Employees thrown out of work.				
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.
Arbitration .....	19	14	13	16	19	10,276	9,756	3,350	3,319	7,118
Conciliation and mediation..	30	27	30	22	13	10,472	9,544	16,167	8,386	8,593
Direct negotiation or arrangement between the parties .....	633	624	495	562	487	136,307	187,048	206,926	156,743	155,025
Submission of employees ....	114	76	71	22	45	30,587	15,207	17,590	7,054	8,895
Replacement of employees ..	107	105	96	88	71	7,250	4,307	9,616	3,980	4,918
Closing of works .....	19	7	.....	3	4	3,159	1,673	.....	95	300
Indefinite or unsettled.....	4	11	6	6	9	139	2,732	258	640	3,689
Total.....	926	864	711	719	648	198,190	230,267	253,907	180,217	188,538

The great bulk of strikes and lockouts was settled by direct negotiation of the parties or their representatives during each of the five

years mentioned. While the number of disputes settled by arbitration and conciliation shows a decrease during the period, account must be taken of numerous instances where strikes and lockouts were prevented by this means.

*Second Abstract of Foreign Labor Statistics.* 1901. xi, 325 pp. (Published by the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade.)

This abstract is the second of a series intended to be supplementary to the Statistical Abstract for the Principal and Other Foreign Countries, and also as a companion series to the Annual Abstract of Labor Statistics of the United Kingdom.

In addition to the statistics of wages, hours of labor, trade disputes, and cooperation, treated in the first abstract, the present volume also covers statistics of conciliation and arbitration, trade unions, and workmen's insurance. The figures in the first volume have, as far as practicable, been revised and brought to date, and a large number of new tables have been added. The statistics reproduced in the abstract relate to 11 leading countries of Europe and to the United States. A table is also given showing wages in various occupations in Japan. In the compilation of the figures no attempt has been made to present comparative tables, but each country and each original report is separately considered, the figures in the tables being rearranged, however, as far as possible on the lines adopted in the reports relating to the labor statistics of the United Kingdom. The source of the information is stated at the foot of each table.

### VICTORIA.

*Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Workrooms, and Shops, for the year ended 31st December, 1900.* 64 pp.

This report, while the regular report of the chief factory inspector, deals with the following subjects: The state of trade in factories and workrooms, statistics of wages, and hours of labor in registered factories and workrooms, the operation of the factories and shops acts with particular reference to the special boards, accidents, sanitary condition of factories, limitation of working hours in shops, minimum wages fixed by special boards and prosecutions under the factories and shops acts.

The report has a special interest from the fact that it is the chief factory inspector who is charged directly with the registration of factories and workrooms and the observance and enforcement therein of the factories and shops acts. It is of these acts that this official says: "I do not think that any country in the world has attempted such far-reaching legislation. It is true that in New Zealand there are courts of conciliation and arbitration, but it must be remembered that the courts deal with firms and not trades, as in Victoria, and that the



enforcement of the awards of the courts is left to the unions, whereas in this State the determinations of the boards are enforced by the inspectors of factories.”

The factories and shops acts, the law which has led the chief inspector to thus speak, are six in number, the first having come into operation August 1, 1890, and the latest of the five amending acts being that in effect May 1, 1900. These acts provide in effect a method of regulation for all matters relating to wages, hours of labor, and the employment of apprentices and learners. For certain industries specified by the law and for such additional ones as may be named by a resolution of either house of Parliament, the governor in council, upon the election of the employers and employees, may appoint special boards, which are empowered among other things to determine within the industry for which they are chosen the minimum rates of wages in each occupation, taking into consideration the nature, kind, and class of work, the mode and manner in which the work is to be done, and the age and sex of the workers, the maximum hours of labor which may be exacted for such wages, the rates for overtime, and the proportional number of apprentices and learners to fully paid employees who may be employed. The law itself fixes a minimum rate for all factories and workrooms by providing that no person unless in receipt of a weekly wage of at least 2s. 6d. (61 cents) shall be employed in any factory or workroom or in wholly or partly preparing or manufacturing any article for trade or sale.

These determinations may be suspended not exceeding six months, when the proper special board must receive and examine evidence, and may thereupon either reaffirm or amend such determination, as it may deem proper. The validity of a determination of a special board can be questioned only before the supreme court. The wages thus fixed by a special board may be sued for by an employee, any agreement to the contrary notwithstanding.

The following is a short summary statement of the more important provisions of the law, as given by the chief factory inspector:

*Provisions of the factories and shops acts.*

1. The acts apply only to cities, towns, and boroughs; they may be extended to shires by the governor in council.

2. Factories and workrooms must be registered. Fees ranging from 2s. 6d. to £3 3s. [\$0.61 to \$15.33] are charged for registration.

3. A factory or workroom is any place where goods are prepared for trade or sale, and in which—

- a. Four or more persons are working;
- b. Steam, water, gas, oil, or electric power is used;
- c. One or more Chinese are working;
- d. Furniture is made, or bread or pastry is baked for sale.



4. Nothing in the acts applies to creameries, butter or cheese or concentrated or condensed milk factories or to dairying or agricultural operations outside the metropolitan district.

5. Factories and workrooms must be approved by the local municipal council or the chief inspector before being registered. Regulations are made by the board of public health for the guidance of the councils and the chief inspector in granting such approval.

6. Inspectors of factories have power to enter and inspect factories and to question employees either alone or in the presence of the employer or his agent.

7. Occupiers of factories who give out work must keep a record of same in prescribed forms.

8. The chief inspector must prepare an annual report, and occupiers of factories must furnish statistics for that purpose.

9. Persons preparing articles of clothing or wearing apparel for sale outside factories must register their names and addresses with the chief inspector.

10. Special boards may be appointed to fix wages and piecework rates for persons employed either inside or outside factories in making clothing or wearing apparel or furniture, or in bread making or baking, or in the process, trade, or business of a butcher or seller of meat or maker of small goods.

11. Special boards may be appointed for any process, trade, or business usually or frequently carried on in a factory or workroom, provided a resolution has been passed by either House declaring it is expedient to appoint such a board.

12. Special boards may consist of not less than four or more than ten members and a chairman.

13. Half the members (elected as prescribed) shall be representatives of employers and half of employees.

14. If the employers' or employees' representatives are not elected, the governor in council may appoint representatives.

15. The members of a board may elect a chairman (not being one of such members); if they do not elect a chairman, the governor in council may appoint one.

16. In the case of the furniture trade, the board is appointed by the governor in council without election. *Note.*—This was provided to prevent the Chinese in the trade electing the board.

17. A member of a board is appointed for two years.

18. The governor in council may fill vacancies in a board without election.

19. A majority of a board may exercise all the powers of a board.

20. A board may fix either wages rates or piecework rates or both.

25. A board must also fix the hours for which the rate of wages is fixed, and the rate of pay for overtime.

26. In fixing wages, a board may take into consideration the nature, kind, and class of the work, and the mode and manner in which the work is to be done, and the age and sex of the workers, and any matter which may be prescribed by regulation.

27. A board may fix the proportion of apprentices or improvers to be employed in any process, trade, or business, and the wages to be paid to same. In fixing such wages the board may consider age, sex, and experience.

28. The determination of a special board applies to every city and



town, and may be extended by the governor in council to any borough or shire or part of a shire.

29. A board may determine that manufacturers may be allowed to fix piecework rates based on the minimum wage.

30. The chief inspector may grant a license to any aged or infirm worker to work at less than the minimum wage fixed by a board.

31. The governor in council may suspend a determination for six months, and the board must then receive and examine evidence as to such determination, and may amend same.

31. The validity of a determination can only be questioned before the supreme court.

32. Regulations may be made fixing the rates of payment to members of special boards. *Note.*—The regulations in force provide £1 [\$4.86½] for a full day for the chairman, and 10s. [\$2.43½] for other members, and half rates for half days. A traveling allowance of 10s. [\$2.43½] per day is paid to members residing more than 40 miles from Melbourne. Railway fare is also repaid.

33. Employees must not be paid any part of a wage (fixed by a special board) in goods.

34. An employee may sue for his wages (if fixed by a special board); any agreement to the contrary notwithstanding.

34. Any person employed in a factory must be paid at least 2s. 6d. [\$0.61] per week.

35. No premium or bonus can directly or indirectly be charged for engaging or employing any female apprentice or improver in making articles of clothing or wearing apparel.

36. Every factory must be kept in a cleanly state, and be provided with proper ventilation and sufficient air space. *Note.*—Great powers are given to the department to enable it to enforce these provisions.

37. Provision is made for the compulsory lime washing or painting factories and workrooms.

38. No person under 16 years of age, and no woman or girl can be employed for more than forty-eight hours [in any one week] in a factory or workroom, provided that on not more than ten days in a year and on not more than one day in any week overtime to the extent of three hours may be worked, subject to payment for overtime at pro rata rates and 6d. [12 cents] tea money. Notice of having worked the overtime must be given to the chief inspector, and the reasons for working must also be stated.

39. The minister may also grant overtime not exceeding two months to any manufacturer if satisfied that the exigencies of trade require that overtime shall be worked.

The suspension is granted subject to following conditions, amongst others:

That 6d. [12 cents] tea money is paid each evening overtime is worked.

That employees are not compelled to work without their consent.

That no employee receiving less than 8s. [\$1.94½] per week is worked more than 48 hours, and that overtime at the rate of time and a half is paid.

40. Chinese and European furniture manufacturers must not work before 7.30 a. m., or after 5 p.m., or after 2 p. m. on Saturdays. All other factories in which Chinese are employed are subject to the same regulation.



41. No person under 13 years of age can be employed in a factory or workroom.

42. Boys and girls under 16 years of age must have medical certificates in certain classes of factories.

43. No boy under 14 and no girl under 16 can work in a factory after 6 p. m., or before 6 a. m.

44. Persons in charge of steam engines and of boilers used to operate a steam engine must hold certificates from the board of examiners appointed under the Mines Act.

45. Dangerous machinery must be securely protected where possible, so that employees may not be injured.

46. Occupiers of factories may appeal to arbitration if they disagree with the inspector of factories' orders as regards the guards to be provided.

47. Accidents causing loss of life and other serious accidents (defined by the act) which occur in factories must be reported to the inspector of factories.

48. With the view to prevention of such accidents the minister may order an inquiry by an expert into the cause of any accident.

48. All furniture whether imported or manufactured must be stamped.

49. Furniture manufactured in Victoria must be stamped with the maker's name and address, and such stamp must indicate whether the furniture was made by Europeans or Chinese labor.

#### *Shops provisions.*

50. All shops, except fourth schedule shops, viz., chemists' shops, coffeehouses, confectioners' shops, eating houses, fish and oyster shops, fruit and vegetable shops, restaurants, tobacconists' shops, and book-sellers' and news agents' shops, must be closed at 7 p. m. ordinary nights and 10 p. m. on Saturdays. If a shop be closed for the whole of a public holiday it may be kept open till 10 p. m. the preceding night.

51. If a majority of the shopkeepers of any class in any municipal district desire to keep their shops open after 7 p. m. they can petition the governor in council to make a regulation for any hour they please, or they can petition in favor of closing before 7 p. m. A majority of the shopkeepers of any class or all classes (other than fourth schedule) can also petition the governor in council to fix a day for the closing of all shops or any class of shops for a half holiday from 1 p. m. on any specified day in the week. A majority of the shopkeepers in the metropolitan district or any two or more contiguous municipal districts may unite for similar purposes.

52. A shopkeeper who closes for the whole of a public holiday need not close for the usual weekly half holiday.

53. Milk can not be delivered after 12 o'clock noon on Sundays.

54. By regulation the hours of work of women, girls, and of males under 16 years of age in fourth schedule shops are limited to 60 per week, and a half holiday must be given from 2 o'clock on some week day. The regulation also applies to billiard markers, waiters and waitresses.

54. Every employee in a shop (except fourth schedule shops in cities, towns, and boroughs) must be given a half holiday from 1 p. m. on some week day. By special enactment this provision applies to the whole State.



55. Persons employed in delivering meat or milk must be given a half holiday from 1 p. m. on some week day.

56. Persons employed in delivering bread must be given a whole holiday on the third Wednesday in every month.

56. In the metropolitan district no person employed in or in connection with a shop (except porters or watchmen and persons employed in fourth schedule shops) can be employed for more than 52 hours in a week.

57. The chief inspector may allow persons employed in shops to be worked overtime on not more than 40 days in a year.

58. The working hours of carters and carriers employed in the metropolitan district in carrying goods to or from a factory, workroom, or shop are limited to 60 per week, and they must be given a holiday on some week day either for the whole morning till 2 o'clock in the afternoon or from 2 o'clock in the afternoon for the rest of the day.

59. Suitable sitting accommodation must be provided in all shops, and employees must be allowed to make use of same at all reasonable times during the day.

60. Penalties are provided for offenses against the acts, and the onus of proof of compliance with the law is in a few cases on the defendant.

Under the act of 1896 six special boards were appointed for factories and workrooms making bread, boots, clothing, furniture, shirts, and underclothing. Under the act of 1900 twenty-one other special boards received parliamentary authorization during the year, but of these only one, the butchers board, had framed a determination. The other boards authorized were in the following industries: Brick, carriage, cigar, confectioners, coopers, engravers, fellmongers, jam, jewelers, millet broom, pastry cooks, plate glass, printers, pottery, saddlery, stonecutters, tanners, tinsmiths, woodworkers, and woolen. The wages paid at various times in those industries which have been carried on under the determinations of the special boards long enough to show the results of their application are shown in the following statement. It is not, of course, to be supposed that the determinations of the special boards have been the only causes operating to effect an increase in wages:

AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGES IN INDUSTRIES SUBJECT TO THE DETERMINATIONS OF SPECIAL BOARDS, 1896 TO 1900.

Industry.	First determination of board.	Average wages in 1896, before determination.	Average wages in 1897.	Average wages in 1898.	Average wages in 1899.	Average wages in 1900.	Average gain since 1896.
Bread, males .....	Apr. 3, 1897	\$7.89	\$9.06½	\$9.85½	\$10.18	\$10.70½	\$2.82
Boot:							
Males .....	Dec. 29, 1897	6.53	.....	.....	.....	8.37½	1.84½
Females .....	.....do.....	3.24½	.....	.....	.....	3.55	.30½
Total .....	.....do.....	5.63½	.....	.....	.....	6.79½	1.16
Clothing:							
Males .....	Nov. 15, 1897	8.57½	8.68	9.61	.....	10.30	1.72½
Females .....	.....do.....	3.75	3.81	4.44	.....	4.40	.65
Total .....	.....do.....	4.86½	.....	.....	.....	5.47½	.61
Furniture:							
Males .....	Apr. 19, 1897	7.20	.....	8.76	9.45	9.83½	2.63½
Females .....	.....do.....	3.42½	.....	4.62½	.....	4.44	1.01½
Total .....	.....do.....	7.07½	.....	8.43½	.....	9.49	2.41½
Shirt, females .....	Jan. 20, 1898	3.51	.....	.....	.....	3.57	.06
Underclothing, females .....	June 26, 1899	2.73½	.....	.....	.....	3.06	.33½



The scope of the determinations of these special boards will be indicated to some extent by the following statement, showing the minimum rates fixed for the various occupations of the brick-making industry. This is one of the recently created boards:

HOURS OF WORK AND MINIMUM WAGES PER HOUR FIXED BY THE SPECIAL BOARD FOR THE BRICKMAKING INDUSTRY.

Occupation.	Hours of work per week.	Minimum wages per hour.	Occupation.	Hours of work per week.	Minimum wages per hour.
Burners (on patent kilns) .....	64	\$0. 24½	Machine riggers.....	51	\$0. 23
Burners (on other than patent kilns).....	60	. 21½	Men attending pans and crushers.....	51	. 22½
Blacksmiths .....	48	. 24½	Men clearing waste from brick machines.....	48	. 18½
Blacksmiths' strikers .....	48	. 18½	Pattern makers.....	48	. 33½
Bricklayers .....	48	. 30½	Setters.....	48	. 23
Carpenters.....	48	. 24½	Truckers .....	48	. 19½
Clayholemen .....	48	. 21½	Turners and fitters .....	48	. 27½
Drawers .....	48	. 26½	Wheelers of green bricks.....	48	. 21½
Engine drivers, first class.....	57	. 25½	Yardmen.....	48	. 18½
Engine drivers, second class...	57	. 23	Apprentices and improvers:		
Facemen.....	48	. 23½	Under 18 years of age .....	48	a. 73
Firemen .....	57	. 23	18 years, but not 19.....	48	a1. 09½
Hand molders .....	48	. 21½	19 years, but not 21.....	48	a1. 34
Loftmen .....	48	. 18½			
Machine drivers.....	51	. 23			

a Per day.

All time worked by male employees over 16 years of age, in excess of maximum number of hours fixed by the board, shall be paid for at the rate of time and a quarter. One apprentice or improver shall be employed to every 15 persons or fraction of 15 persons employed in brickmaking.

The report mentions as a beneficial effect of the determinations of the boards an improvement in the conditions of apprenticeship. Formerly, says the report—

it did not matter to the employers financially whether the “improver” really improved or not. If they did so they would probably be paid more, but in some cases “improvers” were kept for years at work at which improvement was impossible, since the work only had a certain value, and for which good wages could never be paid. In fact, if an improver had fairly good fortune he might learn the trade, if not he might grow to be a man with a knowledge of only the poorly paid part of the trade, at which he could not earn enough to keep himself in manhood. The same conditions applied to the girls. The determinations of the boards changed this. When fixing wages the boards as a rule took into consideration sex and experience. \* \* \* a boy or girl’s wages must increase year by year if they continue at the trade. It is therefore of the utmost importance to the employer that the employee shall be able to earn the wages fixed by the board. The employee is compelled to do his best to improve in his work by the knowledge that he can not obtain employment if he can not earn the legal wage fixed for a person of his experience. The interests of both employer and employee are therefore strongly in favor of the employee increasing in skill and knowledge as he increases in experience. As the time draws near for the compulsory increase in wage, the employer or his agent will urge the employee to renewed efforts at improvement,



and the employee has the knowledge that failure to do so will lead to dismissal. The lad who is not suited to the trade, or who is lazy or careless, is soon eliminated under such a system, instead of remaining for some years at a small wage, and then having to leave to swell the great army of unskilled and half-skilled workers.

The chief factory inspector follows his summary of the important provisions of the law with a brief statement in regard to the observance of the law and its effect upon the employer with especial reference to the determinations of the special boards. The statement is as follows:

With the exception of the determination of special boards the majority of the provisions of the Factories and Shops Acts were always complied with by many of the large employers of labor in factories and shops. With regard to the determinations of boards it was formerly impossible for fair manufacturers to pay a good wage, and yet compete in a common market with sweating competitors.

After some years' experience, I am more than ever convinced that the fair manufacturer and the shopkeeper has little if anything to fear from the operation of the acts or the determinations of boards brought into existence by the Factories and Shops Act 1896. There are many factories in the State subject to all the provisions of the acts, and to these determinations, into which it is seldom, if ever, necessary for the inspectors to go, as the proprietors take a pride in keeping them in a cleanly condition, and always pay the minimum wages, and often a great deal more.

The operation of the acts appears to compel the sweating and unfair manufacturer and shopkeeper to carry on his business somewhat on the lines of the fair employer. If by this means good factories, with proper sanitary provisions, reasonable hours of labor and a fair wage can be obtained for the workers of the State, I think it will be generally admitted that the restrictions imposed by the Factories and Shops Acts are justified, and work for the good of the employers, workers, and of the State generally.

I do not for a moment wish it to be understood that I consider the acts perfect. They will probably require to be amended again and again before complete protection can be given to the employees with a minimum of inconvenience to the fair employer. What I wish to convey is that, considering the numerous restrictions imposed by the acts, the fair employer is not greatly affected. I venture to hope that the inquiry now being conducted by the royal commission on the working of the acts will result in legislation beneficial both to employers and employees.



## DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR.

[This subject, begun in Bulletin No. 2, has been continued in successive issues. All material parts of the decisions are reproduced in the words of the courts, indicated when short by quotation marks, and when long by being printed solid. In order to save space, matter needed simply by way of explanation is given in the words of the editorial reviser.]

### DECISIONS UNDER STATUTORY LAW.

CONSTITUTIONALITY AND CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—*Indianapolis Union Railway Co. v. Houlihan*, *Supreme Court of Indiana*, 60 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 943.—In this case, which was a suit for damages for injuries, brought by an employee against his employer, a judgment was rendered in favor of the employee as plaintiff in the circuit court of Boone County, Ind., and the defendant employer, the above-named railway company, appealed the case to the supreme court of the State, which rendered its decision June 6, 1901, and reversed the decision of the lower court. The negligence alleged to be the cause of the accident which caused the plaintiff's injuries was that of a locomotive engineer, and the further facts in the case are not material for an understanding of the points of the decision which are to be considered below. It was admitted that under the facts in the case the railroad company would not have been liable for the plaintiff's injuries under the common law, but the claim was based upon the provisions of the employers' liability act (Burns's Revised Statutes, 1894, sections 7083–7087; Homer's Revised Statutes, 1897, sections 5206s–5206v). The constitutionality of this act, as well as the construction placed upon it by the plaintiff, was called in question by the defendant, but upon these points the supreme court decided in favor of the plaintiff's contention, as is shown by that part of its opinion, which was delivered by Judge Baker, quoted below. The reversal of the judgment rendered by the lower court in favor of the plaintiff was based upon a point which will not be considered here. The following is quoted from the opinion of the supreme court:

The sufficiency of the complaint will be determined alone from the employers' liability act. The first section of the act provides: "That every railroad \* \* \* corporation \* \* \* shall be liable for damages for personal injury suffered by an employee while in its service, the employee so injured being in the exercise of due care and



diligence, in the following cases: \* \* \* Fourth. Where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person in the service of such corporation who has charge of any signal, telegraph office, switch yard, shop, roundhouse, locomotive engine or train upon a railway, or where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person, coemployee or fellow-servant engaged in the same common service in any of the several departments of the service of any such corporation, the said person, coemployee or fellow-servant at the time acting in the place and performing the duty of the corporation in that behalf, and the person so injured obeying or conforming to the order of some superior at the time of such injury having authority to direct."

The amended complaint does not aver that appellee was "obeying or conforming to the order of some superior at the time of such injury having authority to direct," and appellant claims that this omission leaves the pleading fatally deficient. The fourth subdivision of the first section of the act [quoted above] is divisible into two parts. A railroad company is liable for damages for personal injury suffered by an employee while in its service (that is, while acting within the scope of his employment), the employee being free from contributory negligence, (1) "where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person in the service of such corporation (that is, acting within the scope of his employment) who has charge of any \* \* \* locomotive engine or train upon a railway;" or (2) "where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person, coemployee or fellow-servant \* \* \*, *the said person, coemployee or fellow-servant at the time acting in the place and performing the duty of the corporation in that behalf, and the person so injured obeying or conforming to the order of some superior at the time of such injury having authority to direct.*" From the words used, and the structure and scope of the act, we are of opinion that the concluding clauses of the fourth subdivision [those in italics above] limit and qualify only the liability expressed in the second part of the fourth subdivision [when the injury was caused by the negligence of any person, coemployee or fellow-servant, etc.], and that railroad companies are answerable for the negligence of their servants in charge of signals, telegraph offices, switch yards, shops, roundhouses, locomotive engines, and trains upon their railways, to their employees the same as to strangers.

Appellant contends, however, that the construction which limits the operation of the qualifying clauses in the second part of the fourth subdivision, and which holds railroad companies liable to their employees, the same as to strangers, for the negligence of their servants in charge of signals, and so forth, brings the first part of the fourth subdivision into conflict with the equality clauses of the Federal and State constitutions. The argument, briefly, is this: At common law every employer is protected by the doctrine that every employee assumes, as an incident of his employment, the risk arising from the negligence of his fellow-servants. There is no justification of the withdrawal of railroad companies from the general class of employers, except the exercise of the police power for the protection of employees. The only reasonable basis for a classification in the exercise of the police power is the protection of employees who are subject to unusual dangers. A classification that selects for protection only those employees who are subject to unusual dangers by reason of acting in obedi-



ence to the orders of some superior having authority to direct is constitutional; but a classification that selects for protection all employees, without regard to the dangers naturally incident to their work, and whether they act on their own initiation, or in obedience to the order of some superior who had authority to direct (as the attorney of a railroad company and its down-town ticket seller, for example), is a classification in name only, is arbitrary, has no relation to the object to be accomplished, discriminates against railroad companies by subjecting them to liability for injuries to a class of employees with respect to whom employers in other businesses are not made liable by the act, and is therefore unconstitutional.

Our answer is: It is competent for the legislature, in the exercise of the police power, to take steps for the protection of the lives and limbs of all persons who may be exposed to dangerous agencies in the hands of others. The powerful forces in railroading that are under the direction and control of those in charge of "any signal, telegraph office, switch yard, shop, roundhouse, locomotive engine or train upon a railway" were proper to be selected as sources of unusual danger which should be guarded against. The object to be accomplished was to incite railroad companies to use the utmost diligence in the selection and supervision of their servants who are put in charge of these dangerous agencies, so that fewer lives and limbs of those who are entitled to claim the protection of our laws would be sacrificed. The legislature evidently considered that strangers and employees (the attorney and the ticket seller, for example) who were not fellow-servants of those in charge of the agencies named were sufficiently protected by the railroad companies' existing liability to them for the negligent operation of these dangerous agencies. The legislature evidently determined to protect all persons who were not already protected from the negligent use of particular instruments. The classification is made on the basis of the peculiar hazards in railroading, relates directly to the object to be accomplished, and applies equally to all employers within the class.

To separate railroading from other businesses was not an unconstitutional discrimination, because the dangers (the basis of the classification) do not arise from the same sources; but the claim that a classification not made on the basis of the dangerous agencies employed in the business, but founded on the question whether the employee who was injured without his fault by a fellow-servant's negligent use of a dangerous agency was acting at the time on his own initiative in the line of his duty, or under the orders of a superior, is the only constitutional classification, is unwarranted. A train is wrecked through the negligence of the engineer. Two brakemen are injured without fault on their part; one acting at the time in obedience to the conductor's orders; the other acting on his own initiative, within the line of his duty. There should be and there is no constitutional limitation upon the legislature's exercise of the police power by which a law may not be enacted to protect both brakemen equally from the negligence of the engineer. We hold, therefore, that the act is not obnoxious to the objections urged by appellant.



CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—FELLOW-SERVANT ACT—APPLICABILITY OF STATUTE—RECEIVERS OF RAILROADS—*Powell v. Sherwood*, *Supreme Court of Missouri*, 63 *Southwestern Reporter*, page 485.—Action was brought by Eugenie Powell against Adiel Sherwood, receiver of the St. Louis, Kansas City and Colorado Railroad, to recover damages for the death of her husband, who was killed while in the employ of the defendant and while acting as a brakeman on the above-named railroad. A judgment was rendered in the circuit court of Franklin County, Mo., in favor of the plaintiff. The decision was made upon the theory that the act of the legislature of Missouri, approved February 9, 1897 (p. 96, Acts of Missouri of 1897), defining the liabilities of railroad corporations in relation to damages sustained by their employees, and defining who are and who are not fellow-servants, was controlling in the case. The defendant appealed the case to the supreme court of the State, claiming (1) that the act did not apply to railroad companies which were in the hands of receivers, and (2) that even if it did so apply it was unconstitutional and void. The case was heard in Division No. 1 of the supreme court, and a decision was rendered sustaining the judgment of the lower court, holding that the act was constitutional and did apply in a case where a railroad was in the hands of a receiver.

The opinion was rendered by Judge Valliant and was adopted as the opinion of the court in banc. The following language is contained therein:

It is contended in behalf of appellant that the record proper in this case shows that the accident which resulted in the death of the plaintiff's husband was caused by the negligence of a fellow-servant, and that, therefore, the defendant is not liable because—first, the act entitled “An act to define the liabilities of railroad corporations in relation to damages sustained by their employees, and to define who are fellow-servants and who are not fellow-servants, and to prohibit contracts limiting liability under this act,” approved February 9, 1897 (Laws 1897, p. 96), does not apply to a receiver in charge of a railroad; and, second, that the act is unconstitutional.

If we should hold that our statute applies to servants engaged in operating railway trains in the control of railway corporations, but that it does not apply to servants engaged in operating trains of a railway corporation in the control of a receiver, we should thereby give to the statute that character of inequality before the law and invidious classification which appellant contends renders it repugnant to the constitution of this State and that of the United States. It is one of the canons of construction that, if the statute is susceptible of two constructions, the one rendering it in harmony, and the other in discord, with the constitution, we must give it that construction which will preserve its validity. Section 2666, Revised Statutes 1889, is: “The term ‘railroad corporation,’ contained in this chapter, shall be deemed and taken to mean all corporations, companies or individuals owning or operating, or which may hereafter own or operate, any



railroad in this State." Appellant argues that that statute does not apply here, because it purports to define the term "railroad corporation" contained in that chapter; but the two statutes are *pari materia*, and, as that just quoted was in the Revised Statutes when the act of 1897 was enacted, they should be construed together. In *Railway Co. v. Cox*, 145 U. S. loc. cit. 601; 12 Sup. Ct., 907; 36 L. Ed., 832, the United States Supreme Court said: "In respect of liability such as is set up here, the receiver stands in the place of the corporation." In other words, the receivership is *pro hac vice* the corporation itself under the management of one man, instead of that of a board of directors. To hold, therefore, that the statute applies to corporations of a certain kind under one management, and not to corporations of the same kind under another management, would be to create the inequality before the law to which we have above referred.

The next insistence is that the act of 1897 violates sections 4, 10, and 30 of article 2, and section 53 of article 4, of the constitution of this State, and the fifth and fourteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States. The objections to the act in the light of our State constitution are of the same character as those urged against it in view of the Federal Constitution, except that it is claimed also to be a special law, prohibited by section 53, article 4, of the State constitution, and the reason given for calling it a special law is the same that is given for calling it an infringement of the Federal Constitution, that it is class legislation, creating inequality before the law; so that the objection that the act singles out railroad companies, and imposes on them a burden not imposed on other employers, is the sum of all the objections. This court has gone over this ground often in considering objections like these to similar statutes, and has always arrived at the same conclusion. In *Humes v. Railway Co.*, 82 Mo. 221, the constitutionality of section 43, c. 37, p. 310, Wag. St., which imposed on railroad corporations liability for double damages for killing or injuring horses, cattle, etc., was challenged on the ground, among others, that it was in violation of section 53, article 4, of the constitution. In that case the court, per Phillips, C., said: "It is further alleged against this statute that it is partial and special, because it is directed against railroads alone, while no other common carriers are brought within its operations. Had the legislature deemed it essential to the protection of human life and private property, they would doubtless have extended the statute to carriers by coach and water; but as the class of property and human life protected by this provision of the statute is not exposed to a like peril incident to coach and water travel, the occasion and necessity for so extending the statute does not exist. Class legislation is not necessarily obnoxious to the constitution. It is a settled construction of similar constitutional provisions that a legislative act which applies to and embraces all persons 'who are or who may come into like situations and circumstances' is not partial. There is nothing that can be said against the act of 1897 which could not have been said, or was not said, against the double-damage statute above mentioned, and which is not fully answered in the cases above referred to. We see nothing in the act of 1897 in conflict with the constitution of this State."

As to the contention that the act is in violation of the Constitution of the United States, we will only refer to decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States on that subject. The case of *Humes v.*



Railway Company, above quoted, was taken on writ of error to that court, and it was there held that the statute was not obnoxious to the Federal Constitution. The grounds upon which its invalidity was urged by the railroad company are the grounds upon which the invalidity of the statute in question is urged in the case at bar. That court said: "And there can be no rational ground for contending that the statute deprives it [the railroad company] of property without due process of law." And in discussing the second ground the court said: "The objection that the statute of Missouri violates the clause of the fourteenth amendment which prohibits a State to deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws is as untenable as that which we have considered. The statute makes no discrimination against any railroad company on its requirements. \* \* \* There is no evasion of the rule of equality where all companies are subject to the same duties and liabilities under similar circumstances." (*Railway Co. v. Humes*, 115 U. S., 512; 6 Sup. Ct., 110; 29 L. Ed., 463.)

The fourth section of the act of 1897 declares that no contract made between the railroad company and its employee, limiting the liability of the corporation for damages under that act, shall be valid, but that all such agreements shall be null and void. There was no attempt at a contract of that kind in this case, and therefore we need not discuss that section; but, as it is said in the brief of appellant that section renders the whole act unconstitutional, we will call attention to the fact that a similar provision is contained in the Iowa statute, which the United States Supreme Court holds to be a valid law. Lest the allusion here made to section 4 of this act be construed as casting a doubt on the validity of that section, we will add that no such purpose is intended. The validity of a similar statute in Ohio was sustained in *Pierce v. Van Dusen* [47 U. S. App., 339; 24 C. C. A., 280; 78 Fed., 693], and that statute contained also a section to the effect that it should be unlawful for the railroad company to make any contract with its employee in contravention of its purpose. And the Supreme Court of the United States, as late as December 11, 1899, sustained the validity of a statute of Indiana of like effect. (*Tullis v. Railroad Co.*, 20 Sup. Ct., 136; 44 L. Ed., 192.) We hold, therefore, that the act of 1897 is not in violation of any of the provisions of the Constitution of the United States.

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CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—VIOLATION OF LABOR CONTRACT—*State v. Easterlin*, *Supreme Court of South Carolina*, 39 *Southeastern Reporter*, page 250.—The defendant, Easter Easterlin, was prosecuted in a magistrate's court in Orangeburg County, S. C., for a violation of a verbal farm-labor contract, under act No. 286, Acts of South Carolina of 1897, which act reads as follows:

Any laborer working on shares of crop or for wages in money or other valuable consideration under a verbal or written contract to labor on farm lands who shall receive advances either in money or supplies and thereafter willfully and without just cause fail to perform the reasonable service required of him by the terms of the said contract shall be liable to prosecution for a misdemeanor, and on conviction shall be punished by imprisonment for not less than twenty days



nor more than thirty days, or to be fined in the sum of not less than twenty-five dollars nor more than one hundred dollars, in the discretion of the court: *Provided*, The verbal contract herein referred to shall be witnessed by at least two disinterested witnesses.

The defendant was found guilty by the jury and sentenced. He appealed to the general sessions circuit court of Orangeburg County, which, after a hearing, affirmed the judgment of the magistrate's court. He then appealed to the supreme court of the State, claiming, among other things, as he had claimed from the first, that the act, under which his conviction was had, was unconstitutional. His claim, however, was not upheld, and the supreme court in its decision, rendered July 10, 1901, affirmed the judgments of the lower courts.

The opinion of the supreme court, delivered by Judge Jones, contains the following upon the constitutionality of the act in question:

The magistrate refused to charge the jury that the act of 1897, *supra*, was void as in conflict with section 24, article 1, of the Constitution, providing that "No person shall be imprisoned for debt except in cases of fraud." This refusal of the magistrate was sustained by the circuit court, and the question is now sought to be presented here in the latter part of the second exception. The act is not unconstitutional on the ground presented. This act was sustained as constitutional in the case of *State v. Chapman*, 56 S. C., 420; 34 S. E., 961, against the objections there presented; and, in construing the act, the court, speaking by Mr. Chief Justice McIver, said: "From the language of this act, it will be seen that the offense denounced is not merely the violation of a contract by a laborer employed to work the lands of another, but the offense consists in receiving advances either in money or supplies, and thereafter willfully, and without just cause, failing to perform the reasonable service required of him by the terms of the contract." The statute as thus construed does not provide imprisonment for debt; but, even if it could be so construed, the offense made punishable involves an element of fraud. The judgment of the circuit court is affirmed.

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CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—EIGHT-HOUR LAW—RIGHT TO PAY FOR WORKING OVERTIME—*Beard v. Board of Commissioners, Supreme Court of Kansas*, 65 *Pacific Reporter*, page 638.—Action was brought by James Beard against the board of county commissioners of Sedgwick County, Kans., to recover pay for his services as a janitor in excess of eight hours per day. In the district court of Sedgwick County a judgment was rendered in favor of the defendants and the plaintiff appealed the case to the supreme court of the State, which rendered its decision July 6, 1901, and sustained the decision of the lower court.

The opinion of the court, delivered by Chief Justice Doster and containing a statement of the facts in the case, reads as follows:

James Beard was employed by the county commissioners of Sedgwick County as a janitor of the courthouse building at a salary of



\$30 per month. There does not appear to have been any order of employment at that salary entered upon the commissioners' records, or any contract in writing between the parties to that effect, but Beard admitted that he knew he was to receive a monthly compensation at the rate stated. Thereafter, and during his employment, he rendered accounts against the county for the stipulated monthly compensation, and received payment in accordance with his demands. At no time did he make any claim of employment for other than the stipulated monthly salary, nor make any claim for compensation for services other than or additional to those which were covered by the stipulated monthly payments. During the period of his employment he worked from ten to twelve hours per day, and at the close of his period of service for the county rendered against it an account for extra hours of labor, basing his claim upon the provisions of chapter 114, laws 1891, being an act establishing eight hours as a day's work for laborers and other workmen employed by the State and its counties and other political and municipal divisions, and which act, according to the construction placed upon it by claimant, provides for payment for time in excess of eight hours per day, and upon the basis of eight hours as a day's work. The board of commissioners rejected Beard's claim, whereupon he brought an action against the county. Judgment went against him in the court below, to reverse which he prosecuted error to this court.

We need not undertake to construe the eight-hour law in its application to the claim Beard seeks to make. Admitted that the eight-hour law would have been applicable to his case, he waived his rights under the law by demanding and receiving compensation on a basis other than that upon which he now seeks to stand. As his employment proceeded, as his work was performed, he demanded and received compensation for his labor as though it were the only compensation to which he was or would be entitled, and that claim for compensation was made in pursuance to his original contract. If he had not claimed and received pay on the theory of its being full compensation, or if he had not claimed at all until the close of his period of service, the question he now seeks to raise might have been properly in the case, and, for aught we know, he could have successfully invoked the provisions of the eight-hour law.

While section 2 of the act in question declares that contracts for the performance of public work shall be deemed and considered as made upon the basis of eight hours constituting a day's work, yet the effect of that section is not to annul contracts fully executed by the laborer, and fully paid by the county, as agreed by the laborer, long after the work has been performed and payment has been received. The judgment of the court below is affirmed. All the justices concurring.

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EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—EFFECT OF RELEASE OF CLAIM FOR DAMAGES—LAW GOVERNING CONTRACT WITH RAILROAD RELIEF DEPARTMENT—NEGLIGENCE, ETC.—*Cowen et al. v. Ray*, *United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Seventh Circuit*, 108 *Federal Reporter*, page 320.—One Robert M. Ray, a fireman in the employ of the receivers of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, was killed while in the line of his duty during a collision which took



place in the State of Indiana and which was caused by the negligence of a brakeman who was sent back from a train that was stalled upon the main track to put torpedoes and lamps upon the track to warn another train that was about due. Upon his death Ray left a widow and two minor children and the widow brought suit as administratrix of his estate against the receivers of the railroad company to recover damages for his death. In the United States circuit court for the district of Indiana, where the suit was brought, the receivers made a special defense in part as follows: That the railroad company was operating a relief department, conducted as a part of the business of the road, its purpose, among other things, being to extend relief in case of sickness, injury, old age, and death to its employees; that among the rules of this department was one to the effect that, in the event of disability, or death from injuries, the benefits should not be payable until there had been filed with the superintendent, by all persons who might bring suit, a release from all claims for damages by reason of such injury or death; that Ray was at the time of his death a member of this department, and had agreed to be bound by its rules; that in his application Ray agreed that the acceptance of benefits for injury or death should operate as a release of all claims against the company; that the superintendent might require as a condition precedent to the payment of such benefits all acts deemed appropriate to effect such release; that the bringing of any suit by Ray or his beneficiary or legal representative for such injury or death should operate as a release of the relief department, and that the contract thus created should be governed in its construction and effect by the laws of the State of Maryland; that after the death of Ray his widow elected to take the benefits provided by the contract with the relief department and to waive the bringing of any suit for damages, and thereupon the receivers through the relief department agreed to pay her as "widow and administratrix" the sum of \$1,000; that she was furnished for that purpose with a blank release which was signed by her as widow and beneficiary but not as administratrix; that the release thus signed by her was returned to her for her signature as administratrix but she had never so signed it. To this defense a special demurrer was filed by the widow, and the court sustained it and rendered a judgment in her favor for the sum of \$7,500 and ordered it paid out of the funds in the hands of the receivers. They then appealed the case to the United States circuit court of appeals for the seventh circuit, which rendered its decision April 9, 1901, and sustained the decree of the lower court.

Circuit Judge Grosscup delivered the opinion of the court, and the following is quoted therefrom:

The liability in this case is controlled by the following Indiana legislation: Section 7083 of the Revised Statutes of Indiana, which reads as follows: "That every railroad or other corporation, except munic-



ipal, operating in this State, shall be liable for damages for personal injury suffered by any employee while in its service, the employee so injured being in the exercise of due care and diligence, in the following cases: \* \* \* Fourth: Where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person in the service of such corporation who has charge of any signal, telegraph office, switch yard, shop, round-house, locomotive engine or train upon a railway, or where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person, coemployee, or fellow-servant engaged in the same common service of any of the several departments of the service of such corporation, the said person, coemployee, or fellow-servant, at the time acting in the place, and performing the duty of the corporation in that behalf, and the person so injured obeying or conforming to the order of some superior at the time of such injury, having authority to direct." Also section 7085 (a part of the same act) which reads as follows: "The damages recoverable under this act, shall be commensurate with the injury sustained unless death results from such injury; when, in such case, the action shall survive and be governed in all respects by the law now in force as to such actions." The general law in force was section 285, and provides:

"When the death of one is caused by the wrongful act or omission of another, the personal representatives of the former may maintain an action therefor against the latter, if the former might have maintained an action, had he lived, against the latter for an injury for the same act or omission"; \* \* \* and limits the damages to \$10,000.

Though the answer avers that the appellee [the widow] elected to take the benefits provided for by the contract with the relief department, and to waive the bringing of any suit for damages, it shows, upon further reading, that the appellee refused, as administratrix, to sign any release. Upon the answer, taken as a whole, it is apparent that, while willing to accept the \$1,000, as widow and beneficiary, she declined, as administratrix, to waive the right of action arising under section 285 of the Revised Statutes of Indiana.

But though it has been ruled by the supreme court of Indiana, *Railroad Company v. Hosea*, 152 Ind., 412; 53 N. E., 419, that an acceptance of benefits by the beneficiary is not a bar to the recovery by the administratrix for the use of the child of the deceased, under section 285, it is insisted that the case now under consideration is to be determined, not by this ruling, but by the law of Maryland; and our attention is called to the fact that, by its own terms, the contract with the relief department is to be governed, in its construction and effect, by the laws of the State of Maryland. We can not concur in this view. The statute of Indiana, as construed by the supreme court of Indiana, gives a right of action to the administratrix for the use of the children, notwithstanding the contract for benefits, or the acceptance of benefits by the appellee, as beneficiary. The statute differentiates her right, as administratrix, from her interest, as beneficiary. As administratrix, she has not consented that her right of action, conferred by the laws of Indiana, shall be governed by the laws of Maryland; and it is for the State within whose limits the negligent act is done to prescribe when, and under what circumstances, a cause of action resulting in death shall arise against a person or corporation operating within its limits.

Nor upon the main issue is there, in our opinion, any error in the decree of the circuit court. There can be no question that, so far as the record discloses, Ray acted in the exercise of due care and dili-



gence. The proof of negligence on the part of the appellants is equally clear. Although the brakeman may be regarded as a fellow-servant of Ray, liability exists, if the brakeman falls within the persons enumerated in paragraph 4 of section 7083 of the Revised Statutes of Indiana. We are of the opinion that the brakeman was, within the meaning of that statute, a person in the service of the appellants, having charge of a signal. The rule of the company, framed to meet the emergency that came into existence, made it the duty of the fireman, or in case he was engaged, the brakeman, to go forward the stipulated distances, place the torpedoes and give the signal. It is not necessary to inquire why the fireman did not go. The engineer, in command over the fireman, unquestionably determined that he should not go, and dispatched instead the brakeman. From that moment, and for that occasion, the brakeman was in charge of the signal. Upon his discretion and fidelity depended the proper giving of the signal. His negligence, therefore, under the statute, was, constructively, the negligence of the appellants. The decree will be affirmed.

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EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—EFFECT OF STATUTE OF ONE STATE ON LIABILITY FOR INJURY INCURRED IN ANOTHER STATE—*Williams v. Southern Railway Co., Supreme Court of North Carolina, 38 Southeastern Reporter, page 893.*—Action was brought by Robert Williams against the above-named railway company to recover damages for an injury incurred by him while in its employ and a judgment in his favor was rendered in the superior court of Catawba County, N. C., from which the defendant company appealed to the supreme court of the State. Its decision, affirming the judgment of the lower court, was rendered May 23, 1901, and the essential points of the case and the decision are shown in the following, which is quoted from the opinion of the supreme court, delivered by Judge Furches:

At the close of the evidence the defendant moved to nonsuit the plaintiff for the reason that it appeared from all the evidence that plaintiff was injured in the State of Tennessee; "that plaintiff was injured by the negligence of a fellow-servant, and defendant contended that at common law he could not recover for an injury caused by the negligence of a fellow-servant; that, to enable him to recover, the burden was upon him to show the common-law rule applicable to injuries at the hands of fellow-servants had been abrogated in the State of Tennessee; that plaintiff had failed to show any statute of the State of Tennessee which abrogated the common-law rule that one servant was not entitled to recover for injuries caused by the negligence of a fellow-servant; and, because he had so failed, he is not entitled to recover in this action." This motion was refused, and the defendant excepted.

This exception presents the only point in the case, as there is no exception to the evidence or to the charge of the court. We do not think this case depends upon the doctrine of presumption that the common law prevails in the State of Tennessee. We are of opinion that this case is governed by the law of this State, and that the fellow-



servant act of 1897 [chap. 56, Acts of North Carolina of 1897—Vol. II—"Private Laws," providing that any servant or employee of any railroad company operating in the State of North Carolina, who suffers injury by the negligence, etc., of any other servant, etc., of the company, shall be entitled to maintain an action against such company] applies to it. The act is not limited to injuries received in this State, but is made to apply to the employee of "any railroad company operating in this State, who shall suffer injury to his person," etc. The Southern Railway Company operates its road in this State, and, according to the terms of this act, is liable to its provisions. Of course, the courts of Tennessee would not be bound to observe this act, but the courts of this State are. Indeed, we do not see that the fact that the injury occurred in Tennessee has any bearing on the case. The plaintiff's action is not in tort *ex delicto*, but *ex contractu*, for breach of contract; for, although a tort is alleged, it is based on contract. This being so, and defendant being a resident of this State, and it not being shown where the contract was made, or what State should have jurisdiction of its enforcement, it seems to us that it was altogether proper that the courts of this State should take jurisdiction, and enforce the contract, by ascertaining damages for its breach. Affirmed.

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SEAMEN—CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—PAYMENT OF WAGES IN ADVANCE—*The Eudora*, *United States District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania*, 110 *Federal Reporter*, page 430.—Suit by seamen B. M. Patterson and others to recover wages. The agreed statement of facts showed that the bark *Eudora* was a British vessel; that when in the port of New York and about to proceed to sea certain men, one or more of whom were American citizens, shipped on said vessel as seamen; that at the time the shipping articles were signed the sum of \$20 was paid on account of each of these seamen to the shipping agent through whom they had been employed on account of the indebtedness of the seamen to the shipping agent for board and goods sold to them by him. The suit was brought to recover the amount paid to the agent on the ground that such payment was in violation of section 24 of chapter 28 of the acts of Congress of 1898-99, approved December 21, 1898, amending section 10 of chapter 121 of the acts of Congress of 1883-84, which reads, in part, as follows:

(a) It shall be, and is hereby, made unlawful in any case to pay any seaman wages in advance of the time when he has actually earned the same, or to pay such advance wages to any other person. Any person paying such advance wages shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be punished by a fine not less than four times the amount of wages so advanced, and may also be imprisoned for a period not exceeding six months, at the discretion of the court. The payment of such advance wages shall in no case, excepting as herein provided, absolve the vessel or the master or owner thereof from full payment of wages after the same shall have been actually earned, and shall be no defense to a libel, suit, or action for



the recovery of such wages. If any person shall demand or receive, either directly or indirectly, from any seaman or other person seeking employment as seaman, or from any person on his behalf, any remuneration whatever for providing him with employment, he shall for every such offense be liable to a penalty of not more than one hundred dollars.

\*                      \*                      \*                      \*                      \*                      \*

(f) This section shall apply as well to foreign vessels as to vessels of the United States; and any master, owner, consignee, or agent of any foreign vessel who has violated its provisions shall be liable to the same penalty that the master, owner, or agent of a vessel of the United States would be for similar violation: *Provided*, That treaties in force between the United States and foreign nations do not conflict.

For the purposes of the case it was admitted that the advance payment of wages was contrary to the provisions of the act in question, and the issue upon which the suit went to trial was upon the question as to whether the act was applicable and controlling in the case. The case was heard by the United States district court for the eastern district of Pennsylvania, which rendered its decision June 22, 1901, and decided that the act does not apply to seamen, although American by birth or naturalization, who regularly ship upon a British vessel and thereby become, for the time being, British seamen.

The opinion of the court, delivered by District Judge McPherson, reads as follows:

The purpose of the suit is to obtain a decision upon the scope of section 24 of the act of December 21, 1898 (30 Stat., 763), which forbids the payment of a seaman's wages in advance to himself or to any other person, and especially to obtain a decision upon the scope of clause "f" of that section, which declares "that this section shall apply as well to foreign vessels as to vessels of the United States; and any master, owner, consignee or agent of any foreign vessel, who has violated its provisions, shall be liable to the same penalty that the master, owner [consignee], or agent of a vessel of the United States would be for a similar violation, provided that treaties in force between the United States and foreign nations do not conflict."

There is no formal treaty between Great Britain and the United States upon this subject, and the question must be determined by the application of general legal principles. In my opinion, suit can not be maintained, for at least two of the reasons urged at the argument by counsel for the ship, namely: First, because the act of 1898 does not apply to the libelants; and, second, because it is not within the power of Congress to regulate the internal affairs of a vessel sailing under a foreign flag. I regard both these propositions as established by the Supreme Court of the United States in *Ross v. McIntyre*, 140 U. S., 453; 11 Sup. Ct., 897; 35 L. Ed., 581, and for that reason I shall not discuss them. It is enough, I think, merely to say, in support of the first proposition that the act of 1898 does not apply to the libelants, because the statute, as its title declares, is intended to "amend the laws relating to American seamen, for the protection of such seamen, and promote commerce;" and it can not, therefore, apply to seamen, even if they are American by birth or naturalization, that



have regularly shipped upon a British vessel, and have thereby become British seamen for the time being.

In support of the second proposition, it may be added that a foreign vessel is a part of the territory of the country to which she belongs, and that Congress has no inherent power to control or prescribe rules for her domestic affairs, such as the terms upon which she ships her crew, or the wages she agrees to pay. In certain respects, a foreign ship in our ports is, no doubt, subject to the laws of the United States; but the government and payment and treatment of the crew are matters that are properly held to concern the ship and the crew alone, subject to the law of the flag. The libel must be dismissed, but without costs.

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SEAMEN—CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—PAYMENT OF WAGES IN ADVANCE—*The Kestor*, United States District Court for the District of Delaware, 110 Federal Reporter, page 432.—Suit by a seaman for the recovery of wages. The libelant, William Chambers, was a British seaman who shipped upon a British vessel in the American port of Baltimore; part of his wages was paid in advance, presumably to some other party than himself, and he brought the suit to recover the same with interest. By section 24 of the act of Congress of December 21, 1898 (chap. 28 of the acts of Congress of 1898-99), entitled "An act to amend the laws relating to American seamen, for protection of such seamen, and to promote commerce," section 10 of the act of Congress of June 26, 1884 (chap. 121 of the acts of Congress of 1883-84) was amended so as to read, so far as material to this case, as follows:

(a) It shall be, and is hereby, made unlawful in any case to pay any seaman wages in advance of the time when he has actually earned the same, or to pay such advance wages to any other person. Any person paying such advance wages shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be punished by a fine not less than four times the amount of wages so advanced, and may also be imprisoned for a period not exceeding six months, at the discretion of the court. The payment of such advance wages shall in no case, excepting as herein provided, absolve the vessel or the master or owner thereof from full payment of wages after the same shall have been actually earned, and shall be no defense to a libel, suit, or action for the recovery of such wages. If any person shall demand or receive, either directly or indirectly, from any seaman or other person seeking employment as seaman or from any person on his behalf, any remuneration whatever for providing him with employment, he shall for every such offense be liable to a penalty of not more than one hundred dollars.

\* \* \* \* \*

(f) This section shall apply as well to foreign vessels as to vessels of the United States; and any master, owner, consignee, or agent of any foreign vessel who has violated its provisions shall be liable to the same penalty that the master, owner, or agent of a vessel of the United States would be for similar violation: *Provided*, That treaties in force between the United States and foreign nations do not conflict.



The libelant, Chambers, contended that the provisions of the above section were applicable to the prepayment of the wages of a British seaman employed to serve on a British merchant vessel, while the attorneys for the ship contended that the statute was not intended to apply in such a case, and that, if it was so intended, it was to that extent beyond the power of Congress to enact—in other words, that it was unconstitutional. The case was heard by the United States district court for the district of Delaware, which rendered its decision August 7, 1901, and upheld the contention of the libelant, holding that the above statute is a constitutional enactment applying to the prepayment on American soil or in American waters of the wages of seamen who are British subjects shipping in American ports on British merchant vessels.

From the opinion in the case, delivered by District Judge Bradford, the following is quoted:

I now come to the question whether the statute was intended to apply to the case of British subjects shipping in the United States on British vessels, in the absence of any treaty between the United States and Great Britain inconsistent with such application. In *United States v. Nelson* (D. C.), 100 Fed., 125, decided in the district court for the southern district of Alabama, Judge Toulmin, with reference to the section in question, said:

“That the statute applies to American seamen,—Americans whose avocation is that of mariner,—only, is, I think, clear.”

This is all that was said on the subject and seems to have been obiter; as nothing appears in the case, as reported, from which it can be inferred that the question of the application of the statute to foreign seamen shipping on vessels in American ports was involved. In the *Eudora*, 110 Fed., 430, [see page 172 *ante*] in the district court for the eastern district of Pennsylvania, however, the point under discussion was directly decided. Judge McPherson said:

“The act of 1898 does not apply to the libelants because the statute, as its title declares, is intended to ‘amend the laws relating to American seamen, for the protection of such seamen, and to promote commerce.’”

These are the only cases, so far as I am aware, in which it has been decided or said that the statute applies to American seamen only, and in both of them the court evidently relied on its title in reaching that conclusion. It is well settled that the title of a statute may sometimes be resorted to as tending to throw light upon the legislative intent as to its scope and operation. But to warrant such a course, its language must be ambiguous or otherwise doubtful, or being plain, a literal construction would lead to such absurdity, hardship or injustice, as to render it irrational to impute to the legislature an intent to produce or permit such a result. The language of the section under consideration is plain and wholly free from ambiguity or other uncertainty. Except as therein provided, it is declared unlawful “in any case to pay any seaman wages in advance of the time when he has actually earned the same, or to pay such advance wages to any other person,” and provides that “any person paying such advance wages,” shall be guilty of a misdemeanor. The words “any seaman” in the absence of restriction



apply as well to a foreign as to an American seaman. No such restriction is expressed in the statute. Nor would the enforcement of the provision according to its terms in the case of a foreign seaman work any hardship or injustice. Protection to seamen is one of the beneficent purposes of the act, and the extension to foreign seamen shipping in American ports of the same protection as is accorded to American seamen involves no hardship or injustice to the former.

The section under consideration admittedly was intended to apply to the prepayment of the wages of an American seaman shipping in an American port on an American merchant vessel; and no reason is perceived why the words "any seaman" as employed in the section should be so wrested from their "natural and usual sense" as to exclude a foreign seaman shipping here on such an American vessel, or why the application of its provisions in such case would not be quite as much in harmony with the title of the act as are many of the other sections which do not discriminate between foreign and American seamen employed on American vessels. The case before the court is one in which a British seaman shipped in an American port on a British vessel. It is expressly provided that the section shall apply "as well to foreign vessels as to vessels of the United States" provided "that treaties in force between the United States and foreign nations do not conflict." There is, so far as I am aware, no conflicting treaty between the United States and Great Britain. It is not controverted that the section was intended to apply to the case of an American seaman shipping in an American port on a British vessel; but it is claimed that it was not intended to apply to a British seaman shipping here on such a vessel. Certainly the language of the section is broad enough to cover such a case, and if, as hereafter appears, its application to such cases would operate for the protection of American seamen, it would accord not only with the title of the act, but with the plain terms of the section, so to apply it. A review of the legislation on the subject affords very persuasive evidence that the words "any seaman" as used in the section were the deliberate and well-considered expressions of Congress, intended to have their usual and natural effect and consequently to apply to seamen regardless of their nationality. For the reasons given I am satisfied that the provisions of the section were intended to apply to the case of foreign seamen shipping in American ports on foreign merchant vessels.

The next question relates to the constitutionality of the section in its application to such a case. In *Patterson v. The Eudora*, already referred to, it appears that a majority of the libelants were of foreign nationality and the rest American citizens. They shipped as seamen on a British vessel in the port of New York, a portion of their wages being prepaid to the shipping agent through whom the master employed them. The court held that the section was intended to apply only to American seamen; that it has no application to seamen "even if they are American by birth or naturalization, that have regularly shipped upon a British vessel, and have thereby become British seamen for the time being;" and that, therefore, all the libelants were outside of its provisions. It was further held that it was not in the power of Congress to apply the provisions of the section to any of the libelants. Reliance was had on *Ross v. McIntyre*, 140 U. S., 453; 11 Sup. Ct., 897; 35 L. Ed., 581, as supporting the conclusions reached by the learned district judge. On the other hand, in *United States v.*



Nelson (D. C.), 100 Fed., 125, already referred to, the court, while stating obiter that the section was intended to apply only to American seamen, said:

“To construe the statute as applying to those persons only who ship or engage to ship on American vessels, it seems to me, would give too narrow a construction to it, too small a field for its operation, and make the statute inconsistent with itself and inharmonious as a whole. \* \* \* The statute declares that it is applicable to foreign vessels, and it provides that any master, owner, agent, or consignee who violates its provisions shall be liable to the same penalty that the master, etc., of a vessel of the United States would be, provided that treaties in force between the United States and foreign nations do not conflict.” \* \* \*

Here is a clear recognition that in the absence of a treaty to the contrary the section applies with full force and effect to the prepayment of the wages of American seamen shipping in an American port on a British merchant vessel. If the section be constitutional as applied to such a case, it is difficult to perceive why Congress had not the power to apply the section to the prepayment of wages of British seamen shipping in American ports on British merchant vessels; for its application to the latter case would not more than its application to the former “regulate the internal affairs of a vessel sailing under a foreign flag.”

An act of Congress should not be declared void unless its invalidity clearly appears. Where its language is so general as to apply to cases not within the legislative power it must if possible be so construed as to restrict such generality to subjects and objects within that power. Congress has no authority to declare unlawful or provide for the punishment of acts or offenses wholly done or committed beyond the territory and jurisdiction of the United States. But with respect to subjects committed to it by the Constitution it has full power to declare unlawful and provide for the punishment of acts and offenses done or committed within the territory or jurisdiction of the United States. The shipping interests of the country are peculiarly within the province of Congress and it has full control over the American merchant marine. That Congress had authority to enact a uniform law declaring unlawful and providing penalties for the prepayment on the soil or in the ports of the United States of the wages of seamen of whatever nationality shipping in such ports on vessels of whatever nationality, as detrimental, for the reasons already given, to seamen and the American merchant marine, there can be little or no doubt. I do not regard *In re Ross*, 140 U. S., 453; 11 Sup. Ct., 897; 35 L. Ed., 581, either in the points decided or in the language employed by the court, in the least inconsistent with the views now expressed. I can discover nothing in any part of the opinion countenancing the idea that it was beyond the power of Congress to prohibit under a penalty the prepayment on American soil or in American ports of the wages of seamen shipping in such ports on foreign vessels. Certainly if such prohibition were beyond the legislative authority in the case of foreign seamen, it would be equally so in the case of American seamen, for under the doctrine of temporary allegiance, the same argument would apply with equal force to both cases. The court held that “the territorial jurisdiction” of a nation “includes its ports and navigable waters as well as its lands,” and that the “system of law” governing the mercantile service



“attaches to the vessel and crew when they leave a national port and accompanies them round the globe, regulating their lives, protecting their persons and punishing their offenses;” but recognized that “this law may be suspended while he is in the ports of a foreign nation, but where such foreign nation grants to the country which he serves the power to administer its own laws in such foreign territory, then the law under which he enlisted again becomes supreme.” But the court did not hold or state that the system of law which accompanies a vessel when it leaves a port of the country to which she belongs would, while she is in a port of a foreign nation, exclude the application of the law of that nation, passed for the protection of its shipping interests, declaring unlawful and providing punishment for acts done in the latter port by or on behalf of the master or agent of the vessel. If the prepayment of the libellant’s wages had not been directly or indirectly made until after the *Kestor* left the port of Baltimore and was on the high seas, and thus was not made on the soil or in the waters of the United States, the case would have presented a totally different aspect. But the prepayment was made in the port of Baltimore and consequently within the territorial jurisdiction of the United States. To hold that it was beyond the power of Congress to apply the section to such a case would involve a clear departure from settled doctrine repeatedly recognized by the Supreme Court.

In *United States v. Diekelman*, 92 U. S., 520; 23 L. Ed., 742, Chief Justice Waite, delivering the opinion of the court, said:

“The merchant vessels of one country visiting the ports of another for the purposes of trade subject themselves to the laws which govern the port they visit, so long as they remain; and this as well in war as in peace, unless it is otherwise provided by treaty.”

Full effect must be given to the provision that “this section shall apply as well to foreign vessels as to vessels of the United States,” as a constitutional enactment applying to the prepayment on our soil or in our waters of the wages of seamen who are British subjects shipping in American ports on British vessels.

## DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

CONSTRUCTION OF RELEASE OF CLAIM FOR DAMAGES FOR INJURIES—SUIT FOR DISCHARGE FROM EMPLOYMENT WITHOUT CAUSE—*Rhoades v. Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Co.*, *Supreme Court of Appeals of West Virginia*, 39 *Southeastern Reporter*, page 209.—An action in assumpsit upon a contract of employment, alleging damages resulting from discharge from said employment without good cause, was brought in the circuit court of Kanawha County, W. Va., by one G. W. Rhoades against the above-named railroad company. The facts in the case were substantially as follows: On or about November 7, 1896, Rhoades, then employed as a section hand by the defendant railroad company, received an injury, while assisting in replacing on the track a derailed freight car, which necessitated the amputation of one of his legs on December 27 following. Soon after he was discharged from the hospital, negotiations for a settlement with him were com-



menced by the claim agent of the railway company, which resulted in the preparation by said agent, and signing by Rhoades, of the following instrument:

Coalburg, W. Va., April 27, 1897. I hereby agree to accept \$600 in full settlement, satisfaction, and discharge of all claims arising from or growing out of personal injuries received by me on or about November 7, 1896, while working as a laborer at wreck at Dry Branch on Cabin Creek in the service of Chesapeake and Ohio Railway, said amount to be paid without delay by voucher through agent at Charleston, W. Va. In addition I am to be given a job as watchman or in other service which I can perform. It being understood that I stand in same relation to the company as any other employee, injured or not injured, and will be removed only for cause, and will have a steady job so long as I give satisfaction to the foreman or superintendent under whom I work. [Signed.] G. W. Rhoades.

This instrument was left in the possession of Rhoades, and the agent said he would talk with the superintendent upon his return to Huntington, and, if he agreed to the terms of the proposed settlement, a voucher would be sent to Charleston, and the amount paid. He found the adjustment satisfactory to the superintendent, who directed him to prepare a voucher for the amount. Not having a copy of the writing upon which he and Rhoades had agreed, and wishing to embody its terms in the voucher, the agent relied upon his memory in the preparation of the voucher, which he claimed Rhoades signed May 1, 1897, and which is as follows:

Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Company.

139,634. Claim No. 2,997.

To George W. Rhoades, Dr. Address,  
Charleston, W. Va.

1897.

April 26. For amount agreed upon in full settlement, satisfaction, and discharge of all claims or cause of action arising from or growing out of personal injuries received by me on or about November 7, 1896, while on duty as laborer at Dry Branch, at Drainment [derailment], of train 113 on Cabin Creek Branch ....\$600

O. K.			
Charge to	Amount.	Certified.	Approved.
Hun. Div.	\$600.00.	J. W. Winget,	
C. T. 52.		Claim Agent.	

Received, Charleston, W. Va., May 1, 1897, of the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Company, the sum of \$600, in full compromise, satisfaction, and discharge of all my claims or causes of action, and particularly of all claims or causes of action arising out of the personal injuries received by me November 7, 1896, as per above voucher. In addition to this I am to be given an opportunity to work for the company under like conditions and circumstances as any other employee, injured or not injured, so long as I give satisfaction to the foreman or superintendent under whom I work. George W. Rhoades. [Seal.] J. W. Winget, L. H. Moseman, witnesses.

The \$600 was paid, and about June 1, 1897, Rhoades went to work for the company and continued in its employ until July, 1898, when



he was discharged, as he claimed, without good cause. While the company denied this claim, it also claimed that it had the right to discharge him without cause if it desired to do so. This claim was denied by the trial court, and the jury having found that the discharge was without good cause, a judgment was rendered in favor of Rhoades, from which the defendant company appealed to the supreme court of appeals of the State, which rendered its decision June 13, 1901, and affirmed the judgment of the lower court.

The opinion of the court of appeals was delivered by Judge Poffenbarger, and from the syllabus of the same, which was prepared by the court, the following is taken:

If a person having received permanent injury in the service of his employer, and claiming the injury was caused by the negligence of the latter, in consideration of an agreement on the part of the employer to give him work so long as he gives satisfaction to the foreman or superintendent under whom he works releases his claim for damages for said injury, and is then given employment in pursuance of the agreement at wages agreed upon between them, there is no lack of certainty or mutuality in the agreement, for all its terms are settled, and by releasing his claim for damages the employee has paid in advance for the option to do such work for his employer as he is able to do, and he can not be discharged without cause.

If, in such case, the servant be discharged without cause, he may treat the contract as absolutely broken, by the master, and in action thereon recover the full value of the contract to him at the time of the breach, including all that he would have received in the future as well as in the past if the contract had been kept, less any sum he might have earned already, or might thereafter earn in other service, as well as the amount of any loss the defendant sustained by the loss of his services without the master's fault.

In the trial of such case the burden is upon the defendant to show that the discharge was for good cause, and a verdict for the plaintiff should not be set aside unless it is clearly wrong.

If two writings of different dates, made between the same parties, and relating to the same subject-matter, are not different from each other in legal effect, though different in terms, and the latter in date is, among other things, a receipt for a sum of money, mentioned in the other and to be paid, and therefore a voucher, passed between the parties in performance of the first agreement, such first agreement is not discharged by the execution of the latter, and resort may be had to both instruments in ascertaining the rights and liabilities of the parties.

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EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—DEFECTIVE MACHINERY—ASSUMPTION OF RISK BY EMPLOYEE—*Dempsey v. Sawyer*, *Supreme Judicial Court of Maine*, 49 *Atlantic Reporter*, page 1035.—Action was brought by Michael Dempsey against John G. Sawyer to recover damages for personal injuries incurred by him while in the employ of Sawyer. In the supreme court of Maine, where the trial was had, a verdict was



rendered for the plaintiff, Dempsey, and the defendant, Sawyer, made a motion for a new trial. This was argued before the full bench and the decision was rendered May 29, 1901, the motion for a new trial being overruled. The case hinged upon the question of the assumption of the risk of a defective machine by which the plaintiff was injured, and upon this question the court laid down the law in its opinion, delivered by Judge Emery. The syllabus of the opinion, which was prepared by the court, reads as follows:

The risk of injury to a servant from defective machinery is primarily upon the master, and remains upon him unless the servant voluntarily assumes it. The servant may voluntarily assume such risk, and relieve the master from it, but such assumption is his voluntary act, not his legal duty.

Whether the servant has voluntarily assumed such risk is a question of fact to be determined by the jury. When, however, the servant knows and appreciates the danger of injury from defective machinery, and yet enters or continues in the dangerous service without protest, the necessary inference is that he has voluntarily assumed the risk. Although the servant may have once taken such risk upon himself, he may throw it back upon the master by a notification that he will no longer carry it. Whether the risk, once assumed, has been thus thrown off, is a question of fact for the jury. When a servant has thrown off the risk once assumed, he may voluntarily reassume it, and whether he has reassumed it is also a question of fact for the jury.

When a servant has notified the master that he will no longer carry a risk once assumed, and is requested by the master to continue in the service, with the assurance that the defects shall be speedily remedied, and the servant thereupon does continue in the service, it is a question of fact for the jury whether the servant has thereby reassumed the risk, pending the removal of the defects, or whether it remains upon the master. There is no necessary inference either way. In this case the jury has found for the plaintiff upon all these questions of fact, and the court is not convinced that the jury was unmistakably wrong in so doing.

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EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—DUTIES OF THE EMPLOYER—INSPECTION OF APPLIANCES, ETC.—*Lafayette Bridge Company v. Olsen, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Seventh Circuit, 108 Federal Reporter, page 335.*—This suit was brought to recover damages for the death of one John Olsen, a common laborer in the employ of the bridge company above named, and who was drowned in the Illinois River by falling from a temporary bridge or scaffolding during the erection of a bridge across said river. The fall was caused by the fact that the planks of which the scaffolding was made were not large or strong enough to bear the weight imposed upon them, and that one of them broke, causing Olsen to be precipitated to the river below. The material used was selected by one Luke, who was in charge of the work and who was



the sole representative of the bridge company--hiring, paying, and discharging the men, and doing all the buying for the bridge company. The negligence which caused the accident was the selection of poor material for the scaffolding by Luke, the foreman, and the point upon which the case hinged was whether the company was responsible for his negligence. In the United States circuit court for the northern division of the northern district of Illinois, in which the trial of the case was had, a judgment in favor of the plaintiff was rendered and the defendant bridge company appealed the case to the United States circuit court of appeals for the seventh circuit. Said court rendered its decision April 30, 1901, and affirmed the decision of the lower court.

Circuit Judge Jenkins delivered the opinion of the court and, in the the course of the same, he used the following language:

We have held in *Reed v. Stockmeyer*, 34 U. S. App., 727; 20 C. C. A., 381; 74 Fed., 186, that it is the duty of the master to use ordinary care to furnish appliances reasonably safe for the use of servants, such as, with reasonable care on his part, can be used without danger save such as is incident to the business in which such instrumentalities are employed; that it is also the duty of the master to use like care to provide a safe place in which the laborer may perform his work, and to keep it in a suitable condition. These duties may not be foregone, and, when delegated to be performed by another, that other is a vice-principal, and quoad hoc represents the principal, so that his act is the act of the principal. That other may have a dual character—vice-principal with respect to the duty due from the master to the servant, and coservant with respect to his acts as a workman. In case of injury, the question of the liability of the master turns rather on the character of the act than on the relations of the servants to each other. If the act is in the discharge of some positive duty owing by the master to the servant, then negligence therein is the negligence of the master; otherwise, there should be personal wrong on the part of the master to render him liable. These principles we understand to be established by the ruling of the ultimate tribunal [the United States Supreme Court].

This duty of the master owing to the servant is not absolute, but relative, measured by the nature and character of the employment and the nature of the location and the surroundings. In the case at bar the work to be done was accompanied by danger arising not only from location, but from the great weight to be supported. In furnishing plank to be used for such support, the master owed to the servant the positive duty of furnishing material reasonably fit for the purposes of the contemplated use. In the reasonable discharge of his duty he should ascertain if the plank furnished were reasonably sufficient to bear the weight to which they were to be subjected. That was matter of technical knowledge and experience, which could not be left to the knowledge of a common laborer. It was also the duty of the master to have proper inspection of the lumber furnished, to ascertain its soundness, for upon that depended its breaking strength and its ability to sustain the ordinary working strain to which it would be subjected. It was incumbent upon the master, under the circumstances of this



case, and in view of the peculiar defectiveness of the plank that broke [having a curl in the grain at the point where it broke], to have shown that such inspection was had before the employment of the material in work in which life was at stake if the material was defective. So far as the record discloses, no such inspection was had.

If the duty of inspection was delegated to the foreman in charge of the work, it was not performed. He instructed common laborers to select the plank, and to pick out the best. Such selection, however, is not the inspection which duty to the servant required. The common laborer might form some judgment between two sticks of timber, and select the better one as they appeared to his uninformed and inexperienced mind; but he could not discover that which required for its ascertainment technical knowledge of woods and the ripened judgment of an expert. There is no evidence of inspection by principal or by vice-principal; and, failing therein, the master is chargeable with knowledge of such defects as would have been ascertained by proper inspection by a competent person. The evidence produced by the master renders it probable that proper inspection would have discovered the defect.

It is not sufficient discharge of the master's duty that sufficient good material should be mingled with bad material in a common mass. As we have pointed out, the duty of inspection could not be put aside or delegated for performance to ignorant and inexperienced men. If the defect were obvious, the master failed in duty in permitting the use of the defective plank. If proper inspection would have disclosed the defect, although it was not apparent to the uneducated eye, there is imputed to the master knowledge of that which a proper inspection would have furnished. If the defect were latent, and not discoverable upon proper inspection, the master would not be responsible, for his failure to inspect worked no harm.

The duty of inspection would seem from the evidence to have been delegated to the foreman. There is no evidence that that duty was performed by him. In respect thereof he stood for the master, and was vice-principal, and was not coservant with those employed upon the structure.

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EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—VALIDITY OF RELEASE OF CLAIM FOR DAMAGES—*Burik v. Dundee Woolen Co., Supreme Court of New Jersey, 49 Atlantic Reporter, page 442.*—In this case suit was brought by one Martin Burik against the above-named company to recover damages for injuries incurred by him while in its employ. In the trial court the defendant company set up as a defense to the suit a release of all claims for damages which it had received from the plaintiff, but the court held that the release was not valid and directed that a verdict be rendered for the plaintiff, which was done. Upon the application of the defendant company a rule was issued by the supreme court of New Jersey to show cause why a new trial should not be granted. After a hearing the court rendered its decision June 10, 1901, and denied the application for a new trial, supporting the action of the trial court. The opinion of the supreme court was delivered by



Judge Collins and from the syllabus of the same, which was prepared by the court and sets out the reasons for the decision, the following is taken:

In a suit against a corporation to recover damages for personal injuries received in its service, the defendant relied upon a release drawn in the English language and executed by the plaintiff, who understood only Slavonic. The execution of the release was procured by the English-speaking secretary of the corporation, who knew no Slavonic. A fellow-countryman of the servant, in the same employment, was, without objection by the servant, called in to interpret, and through him the secretary undertook to make known the purport of the instrument presented for execution. *Held*, that the interpreter must be considered the agent of the defendant [the woolen company], and that, if the purport of the instrument was not adequately imparted to the plaintiff, it was not a valid release.

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STRIKES—CONSPIRACY—INJUNCTION—*Allis Chalmers Co. v. Reliable Lodge, United States Circuit Court, Northern District of Illinois, 111 Federal Reporter, page 264.*—In this case the Allis Chalmers Company complained that a portion of its workmen, having left their employment and declared a strike, were using organized efforts to injure the business of the complainant by establishing patrols or pickets about its works, and by threats, acts of violence, and otherwise had intimidated those persons who desired to enter or to continue in its service, to the irreparable damage of the company's business. The company asks for relief and an injunction against the continuance of such acts.

The parties complained against denied that the violence and threats were the acts of themselves or of anyone acting by their direction. They stated that their pickets were under instructions to notify workmen seeking employment that a strike was on, but were not to attempt in any manner to intimidate such workmen.

Judge Kohlsaas, in granting the injunction, said:

Under all the conflict of evidence in this case, it is undeniable that the defendants, or some of them, and their confederates, have conspired to and have greatly intimidated complainant's workmen, and thereby have intended to and have done great and irreparable injury to complainant's business and property, largely in excess of the necessary jurisdictional amount. It is conceivable, theoretically, that patrols or pickets could be maintained upon the platonic basis claimed by defendants; but the evidence, taken as a whole, leaves no doubt in the mind of the court that the name was not misapplied in this case. Here a siege exists. Probably to some extent the acts of violence complained of have been done by persons not members of the union and not connected in any manner with the striking workmen, but in some of the cases the evidence is so specific that it can not be overlooked. It is true that at such times, when excitement runs high, the public mind is inflammable, at least among such persons as usually attach themselves to strikers. It is also true that the criminal classes take advantage of



such occasions to commit, under cover of honest men, dastardly and cowardly acts. These facts applied to this case make it apparent that the conduct of defendants was calculated to work a serious wrong to complainant. In the judgment of the court, the pickets were in some case themselves guilty of intimidating complainant's workmen, and were the indirect, if not the direct, inspiration of like acts and of violence by others. It is conceded that these pickets were appointed and directed by officers and members of defendant lodges. That a conspiracy existed among a number of these officers and members to stop, and thereby injure, the business of complainant, by intimidation and violence, is evident. In a conspiracy of this character, where it is difficult to even learn the names of the individual members of the lodges, the active cooperation of the individual members in the conspiracy is difficult to establish by direct proofs; but their acquiescence in, and connivance at, the methods pursued by their officers and leaders, is easily established by the results sought and accomplished.

These being the facts in the case, the law is clear and emphatic. The jurisdiction of a court of equity to restrain the defendants, under the circumstances, is too well established to require citations or be called in question by any one familiar with the decisions. \* \* \* As now presented, the court must grant the writ in broad and unmistakable terms, commensurate with the exigencies of the situation, as shown by the facts in evidence upon this proceeding. To do so will work no hardship, nor will it even hamper the actions of any law-abiding person. Indeed, no one without a purpose to commit an unlawful act would be affected thereby.

It is the undoubted right of workmen to quit work severally or in a body, so long as the act does not come within the rule against conspiracies to injure the property of another. They may also use peaceable means in persuading others to join them in carrying out the strike, subject to the above rule. Both of these rights, however, must be exercised in such a manner as not to otherwise interfere with the right of every man to run his own business in his own way, provided he keeps within the law in so doing, or the right of every man to work or not to work, to strike or not to strike, to join a union or not, as he may think best. In other words, a man may decide his own course, and hold himself to certain rules, but he can not impose those rules or that course upon the conduct of any other man, against his wish, any more than he can place fetters upon his hands or shackles upon his feet. And when, as in the case at bar, the attempt is made, through intimidation and acts of violence, to effect this end, it is tyranny of the most despotic character; it is civil war; it is treason to the principles of this and almost every other government. It will not be tolerated.



## LAWS OF VARIOUS STATES RELATING TO LABOR ENACTED SINCE JANUARY 1, 1896.

[The Second Special Report of the Department contains all laws of the various States and Territories and of the United States relating to labor in force January 1, 1896. Later enactments are reproduced in successive issues of the Bulletin from time to time as published.]

### MASSACHUSETTS.

#### ACTS OF 1901.

##### CHAPTER 80.—*Sunday labor—Bootblacks.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for bootblacks to carry on their business on Sunday up to the hour of eleven in the forenoon.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved February 21, 1901.

##### CHAPTER 106.—*Convict labor.*

SECTION 1. Convicts in the State prison may be employed, in the custody of an officer, on any part of the premises of the prison; and an escape from such premises shall be deemed an escape from the prison.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved March 5, 1901.

##### CHAPTER 113.—*Posting of time tables in mercantile establishments.*

SECTION 1. Section ten of chapter five hundred and eight of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and ninety-four, as amended by section one of chapter three hundred and seventy-eight of the acts of the year nineteen hundred, is hereby further amended \* \* \* so as to read as follows: *Section 10.* No minor under eighteen years of age, and no woman, shall be employed in laboring in any mercantile establishment more than fifty-eight hours in any one week: *Provided,* That the restrictions imposed by this section shall not apply during the month of December in each year to persons employed in shops for the sale of goods at retail; and every employer shall post in a conspicuous place in every room where such persons are employed a printed notice stating the number of hours' work required of them on each day of the week, the hours of commencing and stopping such work, and the hour when the time or times allowed for dinner or for other meals begin and end. The printed form of such notice shall be furnished by the chief of the district police and shall be approved by the attorney-general; and the employment of any such person for a longer time in any day than that so stated shall be deemed a violation of this section; and for the purpose of this act the expression "mercantile establishments" shall have the following meanings: Any premises used for the purposes of trade in the purchase or sale of any goods or merchandise, and any premises used for the purposes of a restaurant or for publicly providing and serving meals.

SEC. 2. Any employer, superintendent, overseer or other agent of a mercantile establishment violating any of the provisions of the foregoing section shall be punished by a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars and not less than fifty dollars for each offense.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved March 6, 1901.

##### CHAPTER 164.—*Employment of children.*

SECTION 1. No minor under eighteen years of age shall be employed in the manufacture of acids when such employment is dangerous or injurious to the health of such minor.



SEC. 2. The State board of health shall upon the application of any citizen of the Commonwealth determine, after such investigation as said board may deem necessary, whether or not the manufacture of a particular acid is dangerous or injurious to the health of minors under eighteen years of age; and the decision of said board shall be conclusive evidence whether or not the manufacture of a particular acid is dangerous or injurious to the health of such minors.

SEC. 3. Any person who employs a minor under eighteen years of age in the manufacture of an acid after the State board of health has decided that such manufacture is dangerous or injurious to the health of such minor shall be punished by a fine of one hundred dollars for each offense.

Approved March 20, 1901.

#### CHAPTER 166.—*Protection of workmen on buildings.*

SECTION 1. Whenever in the erection of an iron or a steel framed building the spaces between the girders or floor beams of any floor are not filled or covered by the permanent construction of said floors before another story is added to the building, then a close plank flooring shall be placed and maintained over such spaces, from the time when the beams or girders are placed in position until said permanent construction is applied: *Provided, however,* That openings may be left through said floors for the passage of workmen or material, which openings shall be protected by a stout hand railing not less than four feet high.

SEC. 2. In the construction of any iron or steel framed building having a clear story of twenty-five feet elevation or more a staging with a close plank flooring shall be placed under the whole extent of the beams, girders or trusses of such story upon which iron or steel workers are working, and not more than ten feet below the underside of such beams, girders and trusses.

SEC. 3. It shall be the duty of the inspectors of public buildings attached to the inspection department of the Massachusetts district police to enforce the provisions of this act.

SEC. 4. Whoever violates any provision of this act shall be punished by a fine of not less than fifty dollars for each offense.

Approved March 20, 1901.

#### CHAPTER 175.—*Bradford Durfee Textile School of Fall River.*

SECTION 1. The trustees of the Textile School of Fall River, a corporation organized under chapter two hundred and ninety-nine of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, is hereby authorized and empowered to change its name to The Bradford Durfee Textile School of Fall River.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved March 21, 1901.

#### CHAPTER 370.—*Specifications, etc., to be posted in textile factories.*

SECTION 1. Section one of chapter one hundred and forty-four of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and ninety-five is hereby amended \* \* \* so as to read as follows: *Section 1.* The occupier or manager of every textile factory shall post in every room where any employees work by the job, in legible writing or printing, and in sufficient numbers to be easily accessible to such employees, specifications of the character of each kind of work to be done by them, and the rate of compensation. Such specifications in the case of weaving rooms shall state the intended or maximum, length or weight of a cut or piece, the count per inch of reed, and the number of picks per inch, and the price per cut or piece, or per pound; or, if payment is made per pick or per yard, the price per pick or per yard; and each warp shall bear a designating ticket or mark of identification. In roving or spinning rooms the number of roving or yarn and the price per hank for each size of machine shall be stated; and each machine shall bear a ticket stating the number of the roving or yarn made upon it. The maximum length of a cut or piece shall not exceed five per cent of the intended length of the same.

SEC. 2. Section three of said chapter is hereby amended \* \* \* so as to read as follows: *Section 3.* The members of the inspection department of the district police force shall enforce the provisions of this act; and they shall be authorized to go into any room, mill or factory to ascertain the facts relating to any work done therein or coming from any other room, mill or factory, and to take the measurements thereof; and anyone interfering with them shall be liable to the penalties prescribed in section two hereof.

Approved May 8, 1901.



CHAPTER 428.—*Kidnapping.*

SECTION 1. Section thirty of chapter two hundred and two of the Public Statutes is hereby amended \* \* \* so as to read as follows: *Section 30.* Whoever, without lawful authority, forcibly or secretly confines or imprisons another person within this State against his will, or forcibly carries or sends such person out of this State, or forcibly seizes and confines or inveigles or kidnaps another person, with intent either to cause him to be secretly confined or imprisoned in this State against his will, or to cause him to be sent out of this State against his will, or in any way held to service against his will, and whoever sells or in any manner transfers for any term the service of a negro, mulatto, or other person of color, who has been unlawfully seized, taken, inveigled, or kidnapped from this State to any other State, place, or country, shall be punished by imprisonment in the State prison not exceeding ten years, or by fine not exceeding one thousand dollars and imprisonment in the jail not exceeding two years. Whoever commits any offence described in this section with the intent to extort money or other valuable thing thereby shall be punished by imprisonment in the State prison not exceeding twenty-five years.

Approved May 23, 1901.

CHAPTER 439.—*Factories and workshops.—Safety appliances on elevators, etc.*

SECTION 1. Section forty-two of chapter four hundred and eighty-one of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and ninety-four is hereby amended by striking out the whole of said section and inserting in place thereof the following: *Section 42.* On or before the first day of January in the year nineteen hundred and two all elevator cabs or cars, whether used for freight or passengers, shall be provided with some suitable mechanical device whereby they will be securely held in the event of an accident to the shipper rope or hoisting machinery, or any similar accident, and they shall be guarded and equipped with some attachment or device fastened to the elevator cab or car, elevator well, or floor of the building, which shall prevent any person from being caught between the floor of the cab or car and the floor of the building while attempting to enter or leave the elevator. All elevators used for carrying freight shall be equipped with some suitable device which shall act as a danger signal to warn people of the approach of the elevator. All elevator wells built after the first day of January in the year nineteen hundred and two shall be so constructed that that part of the inside surface of the well which comes in front of the opening or door of the cab or car shall be flush with the cab or car, and the door opening from said elevator well into the building shall be placed not more than two inches back from the face of said well, so as to allow no space for a foothold between the car and well door of the building. All the above construction work and devices shall be approved by the inspectors of factories and public buildings, except that in the city of Boston they shall be approved by the building commissioner, and in other cities by the inspector of buildings: *Provided, however,* That upon the approval of said commissioner, or inspector of buildings, or inspector of factories and public buildings, any elevator may be used without any or all of such appliances or devices when the nature of the business is such that the necessity for the same will not warrant the expense.

Approved May 28, 1901.

CHAPTER 452.—*Obstructing tracks, etc., of street railway companies.*

SECTION 1. Section thirty-seven of chapter one hundred and thirteen of the Public Statutes is hereby amended \* \* \* so as to read as follows: *Section 37.* Whoever willfully and maliciously obstructs a street railway company in the legal use of a railway track, or delays the passing of the cars or railway carriages thereon, or aids in or abets such detention or delay, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding three months. Whoever commits any of said acts in such manner as to endanger the life or safety of persons conveyed in or upon said cars or railway carriages, or aids or assists therein, shall be punished by imprisonment in the State prison for a term not exceeding ten years, or by fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

Approved June 5, 1901.

CHAPTER 472.—*Free text-books in public schools.*

SECTION 1. Section one of chapter one hundred and three of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and eighty-four is hereby amended \* \* \* so as to read as follows: *Section 1.* The school committee of every city and town shall purchase, at the



expense of such city or town, text-books and other school supplies used in the public schools; and said text-books and supplies shall be loaned to the pupils of said public schools free of charge, subject to such rules and regulations as to care and custody as the school committee may prescribe, in accordance with this act.

SEC. 2. Said chapter one hundred and three is hereby further amended by inserting new sections after section one thereof, to be numbered sections two, three and four, respectively, as follows: *Section 2.* School committees may make rules and regulations for the distribution of said text-books, and may provide for the continued use of any text-books by pupils throughout any grades, in such manner as not to conflict with the provisions of this act. *Section 3.* Pupils completing two years in any public school in grades more advanced than the fourth grade may, if the school committee of a town or city so votes, upon graduating from the grammar schools of any city or town, and upon application to the school committee of such city or town, be allowed to retain in permanent ownership such three text-books used during the last year of their attendance in the school as they may select. *Section 4.* Pupils in the public schools may, if the school committee of a town or city so votes, be allowed to purchase of such city or town, at such time or place as the school committee may designate, at not more than the cost price to such city or town, text-books used or to be used by them in the schools.

SEC. 3. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent herewith are hereby repealed.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect in cities upon, and not before, its acceptance by the board of aldermen, and it shall take effect in towns upon, and not before, its acceptance by a majority of the qualified voters voting thereon at any annual town meeting.

Approved June 6, 1901.

#### CHAPTER 474.—*Construction of foundries, etc., Boston.*

SECTION 1. Section forty-six of chapter four hundred and nineteen of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and ninety-two, as amended by section four of chapter four hundred and sixty-four of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and ninety-three, is hereby further amended by adding at the end thereof the words: *Provided, however,* That the provisions of this section shall not apply to buildings used only for foundries or for working in metals, built outside of the building limits and conforming to the requirements of first class buildings except in having the beams of wood, supported or not supported by posts of wood, and in having floors of wood laid directly upon the beams and the floors kept uncovered on their underside between the beams.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved June 6, 1901.

#### RESOLVES.—CHAPTER 42.—*New Bedford Textile School.*

*Resolved,* That there be allowed and paid out of the treasury of the Commonwealth to the trustees of the New Bedford Textile School, the sum of eighteen thousand dollars, to be applied to the purposes of the textile school established and conducted at New Bedford by the said corporation: *Provided, however,* That no part of the sum herein authorized shall be paid until satisfactory evidence has been furnished to the auditor of accounts of the Commonwealth that an additional sum of seven thousand dollars has been paid to the said trustees by the city of New Bedford, or received by them from other sources; *And provided, further,* That the yearly tuition fee at said institution for day pupils who are nonresidents of the Commonwealth shall be not less than one hundred and fifty dollars. The city of New Bedford is hereby authorized to raise by taxation and pay to said trustees such sum of money, not exceeding seven thousand dollars, as may be necessary to secure the amount provided for by this resolve.

Approved April 2, 1901.

#### RESOLVES.—CHAPTER 70.—*Lowell Textile School.*

*Resolved,* That there be allowed and paid out of the treasury of the Commonwealth the sum of thirty-five thousand dollars, to be expended under the direction of the trustees of the Lowell Textile School in erecting a building or buildings for the use of said school: *Provided,* That no part of this sum shall be paid until satisfactory evidence is furnished to the auditor of accounts of the Commonwealth that an additional sum of thirty-five thousand dollars has been paid to said trustees by the city of Lowell, or received by them from other sources, for the same purpose. The city of



Lowell is hereby authorized to raise by taxation and pay to said trustees such sum of money, not exceeding thirty-five thousand dollars, as may be necessary together with that received from other sources to obtain the amount provided for by this resolve.

Approved May 1, 1901.

RESOLVES.—CHAPTER 71.—*Lowell Textile School.*

*Resolved*, That there be allowed and paid out of the treasury of the Commonwealth to the trustees of the Lowell Textile School the sum of eighteen thousand dollars, to be applied to the purposes of the school: *Provided*, That no part of this sum shall be paid until satisfactory evidence is furnished to the auditor of accounts of the Commonwealth that an additional sum of seven thousand dollars has been paid to said trustees by the city of Lowell, or received by them from other sources. The city of Lowell is hereby authorized to raise by taxation and pay to said trustees such sum of money, not exceeding seven thousand dollars, as may be necessary together with that received from other sources to secure the amount provided for by this resolve.

Approved May 1, 1901.

RESOLVES.—CHAPTER 88.—*Bradford Durfee Textile School of Fall River.*

*Resolved*, That there be allowed and paid out of the treasury of the Commonwealth to the Bradford Durfee Textile School of Fall River the sum of thirty-five thousand dollars, to be expended under the direction of the trustees or directors of the school for completing the erection and equipment of a building or buildings for the use of the school: *Provided*, That no part of this sum shall be paid until satisfactory evidence is furnished to the auditor of accounts of the Commonwealth that an additional sum of thirty-five thousand dollars has been paid to said school by the city of Fall River or has been received by it from other sources for the same purpose, during the year nineteen hundred and one; *And, also provided*, That such part of said additional sum of thirty-five thousand dollars as may be approved by the auditor may be paid by the conveyance to the school, at a valuation also to be approved by the auditor, of land in fee, free from incumbrances. The city of Fall River is hereby authorized to raise by taxation and to pay to said school such sum of money, not exceeding thirty-five thousand dollars, as may be necessary together with that received from other sources to secure the amount provided for by this resolve.

Approved June 5, 1901.

**NEW YORK.**

ACTS OF 1901.

CHAPTER 9.—*Department of Labor, etc.*

SECTION 1. A department of labor and the office of commissioner of labor are hereby created. Within twenty days after this act takes effect, the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint a commissioner of labor, who shall hold his office until January first, nineteen hundred and five. A successor to such commissioner shall be appointed in like manner and shall hold his office for a term of four years, beginning on the first day of January of the year in which he is appointed. Such commissioner shall be the head of such department and receive an annual salary of three thousand five hundred dollars.

SEC. 2. The offices of commissioner of labor statistics and factory inspector, and the state board of mediation and arbitration, shall be abolished upon the appointment and qualification of such commissioner of labor. The commissioner shall have the powers conferred and perform the duties imposed by law upon the commissioner of labor statistics and factory inspector.

SEC. 3. The commissioner of labor shall forthwith upon entering upon the duties of his office appoint and may at pleasure remove, two deputy commissioners of labor to be designated respectively as the first and second deputy commissioners of labor, each of whom shall receive an annual salary of two thousand five hundred dollars. Upon the appointment of such deputies the offices of the assistant factory inspector, deputy commissioner of labor statistics, and chief clerk of the commissioner of labor statistics are abolished.

SEC. 4. The department of labor shall be divided by the commissioner of labor into three bureaus as follows: factory inspection, labor statistics, and mediation and arbitration. The bureau of factory inspection shall be under the special charge of



the first deputy commissioner of labor, who, under the supervision and direction of the commissioner of labor shall have such of the powers conferred, and perform such of the duties imposed, by law upon the factory inspector, as shall be designated by the commissioner of labor. The bureau of labor statistics shall be under the special charge of the second deputy commissioner of labor, who, subject to the supervision and direction of the commissioner of labor shall have such of the powers conferred and perform such of the duties imposed by law upon the commissioner of labor statistics, as shall be designated by the commissioner of labor. The bureau of mediation and arbitration shall be under the special charge and supervision of the commissioner of labor, who, together with the first and second deputy commissioners of labor shall constitute a board, which shall have the powers conferred, and perform the duties imposed, by law on the State board of mediation and arbitration. The powers hereby conferred upon the first and second deputy commissioners shall not include the appointment of officers, clerks or other employes in any of the bureaus of the department of labor.

SEC. 5. Except as provided by this act, the deputies, officers and employees in the office of or appointed by the factory inspector, the commissioner of labor statistics, and the State board of mediation and arbitration are continued in office until removed pursuant to law.

SEC. 6. Wherever the terms commissioner of labor statistics, or factory inspector, occur in any law, they shall be deemed to refer to the commissioner of labor, and wherever the term State board of mediation and arbitration occurs in any law, it shall be deemed to refer to the board created by this act.

SEC. 7. This act shall not affect pending actions or proceedings, civil or criminal, brought by or against the commissioner of labor statistics or factory inspector. All proceedings and matters pending before the State board of mediation and arbitration when this act takes effect shall be continued and completed before the board hereby created; and where a grievance or dispute has been submitted to the State board of mediation and arbitration, prior to the taking effect of this act, the board hereby created may make such further investigation in relation thereto as it deems necessary.

SEC. 8. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 9. This act shall take effect immediately.

Became a law, February 7, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

#### CHAPTER 116—*Exemption from execution.*

SECTION 1. Section thirteen hundred and ninety-one of the code of civil procedure is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

§ 1391. In addition to the exemptions allowed by the last section, necessary household furniture, working tools and team, professional instruments, furniture and library, not exceeding in value two hundred and fifty dollars, together with the necessary food for the team for ninety days, are exempt from levy and sale by virtue of an execution, when owned by a person, being a householder, or having a family for which he provides, except where the execution is issued upon a judgment, recovered wholly upon one or more demands, either for work performed in the family as a domestic, or for the purchase money of one or more articles exempt as prescribed in this or the last section.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect September first, nineteen hundred and one.

Became a law, March 15, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

#### CHAPTER 306.—*Factories and workshops—Wash rooms and water-closets.*

SECTION 1. Section eighty-eight of chapter four hundred and fifteen, of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-seven, entitled "An act in relation to labor, constituting chapter thirty-two of the general laws," is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

§ 88. Every factory shall contain a suitable, convenient and separate water-closet or water-closets for each sex, which shall be properly screened, ventilated, and kept clean and free from all obscene writing or marking; and also, a suitable and convenient wash room. The water-closets used by women shall have separate approaches. Inside closets shall be maintained whenever practicable and in all cases when required by the commissioner of labor. When women or girls are employed, a dressing room shall be provided for them, when required by the commissioner of labor.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

Became a law, April 9, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.



CHAPTER 418.—*Convict labor.*

SECTION 1. Section one hundred and seven of title two of chapter three of part four of the revised statutes relating to State prisons, as amended by chapter six hundred and twenty-three of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-seven, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

§ 107. The comptroller, the State commission of prisons and the superintendent of State prisons and the lunacy commission are hereby constituted a board to be known as the board of classification. Said board shall fix and determine the prices at which all labor performed, and all articles manufactured in the charitable institutions managed and controlled by the State and in the penal institutions in this State and furnished to the State, or the political divisions thereof, or to the public institutions thereof, shall be furnished, which prices shall be uniform to all, except that the prices for goods or labor furnished by the penitentiaries to or for the county in which they are located, or the political divisions thereof, shall be fixed by the board of supervisors of such counties, except New York and Kings counties, in which the prices shall be fixed by the commissioners of charities and correction, respectively. The prices shall be as near the usual market price for such labor and supplies as possible. The State commission of prisons shall devise and furnish to all such institutions a proper form for such requisition, and the comptroller shall devise and furnish a proper system of accounts to be kept for all such transactions. It shall also be the duty of the board of classification to classify the buildings, offices and institutions owned or managed and controlled by the State, and it shall fix and determine the styles, patterns, designs and qualities of the articles to be manufactured for such buildings, offices and public institutions in the charitable and penal institutions in this State. So far as practicable, all supplies used in such buildings, offices and public institutions shall be uniform for each class, and of the styles, patterns, designs and qualities that can be manufactured in the penal institutions in this State.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

Became a law, April 18, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

CHAPTER 475.—*Factories and workshops—Posting copies of law relating to.*

SECTION 1. Article seven of chapter four hundred and fifteen of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-seven, entitled "An act in relation to labor, constituting chapter thirty-two of the general laws," as amended by chapter one hundred and ninety-one of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, is hereby amended by adding thereto a new section to be known as section one hundred and six and which shall read as follows:

§ 106. A copy of articles five, six and seven shall be posted in a conspicuous place in each workroom of every factory where persons are employed who are affected by the provisions thereof.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

Became a law, April 22, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

CHAPTER 477.—*Laundries.*

SECTION 1. Article six of chapter four hundred and fifteen of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-seven, entitled "An act in relation to labor constituting chapter thirty-two of the general laws," is hereby amended by adding at the end thereof the following section:

§ 92. A shop, room or building where one or more persons are employed in doing public laundry work by way of trade or for purposes of gain is a factory within the meaning of this chapter, and shall be subject to the visitation and inspection of the factory inspector, and the provisions of this chapter in the same manner as any other factory. No such public laundry work shall be done in a room used for a sleeping or living room. All such laundries shall be kept in a clean condition and free from vermin and all impurities of an infectious or contagious nature. This section shall not apply to any female engaged in doing custom laundry work at her home for a regular family trade.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

Became a law, April 22, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

CHAPTER 478.—*Employment of women and children.*

SECTION 1. Section ninety-one of chapter four hundred and fifteen of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-seven, entitled "An act in relation to labor, consti-



tuting chapter thirty-two of the general laws," as added by chapter three hundred and seventy-five of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, relating to the employment of women and children at polishing and buffing is hereby made section ninety-two.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

Became a law, April 22, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

#### CHAPTER 733.—*Examination, licensing, etc., of stationary firemen.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any fireman or firemen to operate steam stationary boiler or boilers in the city of New York, unless the fireman or firemen so operating such boiler or boilers are duly licensed as hereinafter provided. Such fireman or firemen to be under the supervision and direction of a duly licensed engineer or engineers.

SEC. 2. Should any boiler or boilers be found at any time operated by any person who is not a duly licensed fireman or engineer as provided by this act, the owner or lessee thereof shall be notified, and if after one week from such notification the same boiler or boilers is again found to be operated by a person or persons not duly licensed under this act, it shall be deemed prima facie evidence of a violation of this act.

SEC. 3. Any person desiring to act as a fireman shall make application for a license to so act, to the steam boiler bureau of the police department as now exists for licensing engineers, who shall furnish to each applicant blank forms of application, which application when filled out, shall be signed by a licensed engineer engaged in working as an engineer in the city of New York, who shall therein certify that the applicant is of good character, and has been employed as oiler, coalpasser or general assistant under the instructions of a licensed engineer on a building or buildings in the city of New York, or on any steamboat, steamship or locomotive for a period of not less than two years. The applicant shall be given a practical examination by the board of examiners detailed as such by the police commissioner and if found competent as to his ability to operate a steam boiler or boilers as specified in section one of this act shall receive within six days after such examination a license as provided by this act. Such license may be revoked or suspended at any time by the police commissioner upon the proof of deficiency. Every license issued under this act shall continue in force for one year from the date of issue unless sooner revoked as above provided. Every license issued under this act unless revoked as herein provided shall at the end of one year from date of issue thereof, be renewed by the board of examiners upon application and without further examination. Every application for renewal of license must be made within thirty days of the expiration of such license. With every license granted under this act there shall be issued to every person obtaining such license a certificate, certified by the officers in charge of the boiler inspection bureau. Such certificate shall be placed in the boiler room of the plant operated by the holder of such license, so as to be easily read.

SEC. 4. No person shall be eligible to procure a license under this act unless the said person be a citizen of the United States.

SEC. 5. All persons operating boilers in use upon locomotives or in government buildings, and those used for heating purposes carrying a pressure not exceeding ten pounds to the square inch, shall be exempt from the provisions of this act. Such license will not permit any person other than a duly licensed engineer to take charge of any boiler or boilers in the city of New York.

SEC. 6. This act shall take effect immediately.

Became a law, May 13, 1901, with the approval of the governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

### ACTS OF 1901--VOLUME 3.

#### CHAPTER 466.—AMENDING THE CHARTER OF GREATER NEW YORK.

##### CHAPTER 8.—*Inspection of steam boilers, etc.*

SECTION 342. Every owner, agent or lessee of a steam boiler or boilers in use in the city of New York shall annually, and at such convenient times and in such manner and in such form as may, by rules and regulations to be made therefor by the police commissioner be provided, report to the said department the location of each steam boiler or boilers, and thereupon, and as soon thereafter as practicable, the sanitary company or such member or members thereof as may be competent for the duty herein described, and may be detailed for such duty by the police commissioner shall proceed to inspect such steam boilers, and all apparatus and appliances con-



nected therewith; but no person shall be detailed for such duty except he be a practical engineer, and the strength and security of each boiler shall be tested by atmospheric and hydrostatic pressure and the strength and security of each boiler or boilers so tested shall have, under the control of the said sanitary company, such attachments, apparatus and appliances as may be necessary for the limitation of pressure, locked and secured in like manner as may be from time to time adopted by the United States inspectors of steam boilers or the secretary of the treasury, according to act of Congress, passed July twenty-fifth, eighteen hundred and sixty-six; and they shall limit the pressure of steam to be applied to or upon such boiler, certifying each inspection and such limit of pressure to the owner of the boiler inspected, and also to the engineer in charge of same, and no greater amount of steam or pressure than that certified in the case of any boiler shall be applied thereto. In limiting the amount of pressure, wherever the boiler under test will bear the same, the limit desired by the owner of the boiler shall be the one certified. Every owner, agent or lessee of a steam boiler or boilers in use in the city of New York shall, for the inspection and testing of such or each of such boilers, as provided for in this act, and upon receiving from the police department a certificate setting forth the location of the boiler inspected, the date of such inspection, the persons by whom the inspection was made, and the limit of steam pressure which shall be applied to or upon such boiler or each of such boilers pay annually to the police commissioner for each boiler, for the use of the police pension fund, the sum of two dollars, such certificate to continue in force for one year from the granting thereof when it shall expire, unless sooner revoked or suspended. Such certificate may be renewed upon the payment of a like sum and like conditions, to be applied to a like purpose. It shall not be lawful for any person or persons, corporation or corporations, to have used or operated within the city of New York any steam boiler or boilers except for heating purposes and for railway locomotives, without having first had such boiler or boilers inspected or tested and procured for such boiler or each of such boilers so used or operated the certificate herein provided for. The superintendent and inspectors of boilers, in the employ of the police department, in the city of Brooklyn, and the boiler inspectors in Long Island City, shall continue to discharge the duties heretofore devolved upon them, subject, however, to removal for cause, or when they are no longer needed.

SEC. 343. It shall not be lawful for any person or persons to operate or use any steam boiler to generate steam except for railway locomotive engines, and for heating purposes in private dwellings, and boilers carrying not over ten pounds of steam and not over ten horse-power, or to act as engineer for such purposes in the city of New York without having a certificate of qualification therefor from practical engineers detailed as such by the police department, such certificate to be countersigned by the officer in command of the sanitary company of the police department of the city of New York and to continue in force one year, unless sooner revoked or suspended. Such certificate may be revoked or suspended at any time by the police commissioner upon the report of any two practical engineers, detailed as provided in this section, stating the grounds upon which such certificate should be revoked or suspended. Where such certificate shall have been revoked, as provided in this section, a like certificate shall not in any case be issued to the same person within six months from the date of the revocation of the former certificate held by such person.

SEC. 344. A correct record in proper form shall be kept and preserved of all inspections of steam boilers made under the direction of the police board, and of the amount of steam or pressure allowed in each case, and in cases where any steam boiler or the apparatus or appliances connected therewith shall be deemed by the department, after inspection, to be insecure or dangerous, the department may prescribe such changes and alterations as may render such boilers, apparatus and appliances secure and devoid of danger. And in the mean time, and until such changes and alterations are made and such appliances attached, such boiler, apparatus and appliances may be taken under the control of the police department and all persons prevented from using the same, and in cases deemed necessary, the appliances, apparatus or attachment for the limitation of pressure may be taken under the control of the said police department.

SEC. 345. It shall not be lawful for any person or persons to apply or cause to be applied to any steam boiler a higher pressure of steam than that limited for the same in accordance with the provisions of this chapter, and any person violating the provisions of the last preceding section shall be guilty of a misdemeanor. In case any owner of any steam boiler in the said city shall fail or omit to have the same reported for inspection, as provided by law, such boiler may be taken under the control of the police department and all persons prevented from using the same until it can be satisfactorily tested, as hereinbefore provided for, and the owner shall, in such case, be charged with the expense of so testing it.



CHAPTER 14.—*Convict labor—Inmates of houses of correction, etc.*

SEC. 700. Every inmate of an institution under the charge of the commissioner, whose age and health will permit, shall be employed in quarrying or cutting stone, or in cultivating land under the control of the commissioner, or in manufacturing such articles as may be required for ordinary use in the institution under the control of the commissioner, or for the use of any department of the city of New York, or in preparing and building sea-walls upon islands or other places belonging to the city of New York upon which public institutions now are or may hereafter be erected, or in public works carried on by any department of the city, or at such mechanical or other labor as shall be found from experience to be suited to the capacity of the individual. The articles raised or manufactured by such labor shall be subject to the order of and shall be placed under the control of the commissioner, and shall be utilized in the institutions under his charge or in some other department of the city. All the lands under the jurisdiction of the commissioner not otherwise occupied or utilized, and which are capable of cultivation, shall in the discretion of the commissioner be used for agricultural purposes.

SEC. 701. At the request of any of the heads of the administrative departments of the city of New York (who are hereby empowered to make such request) the commissioner of correction may detail and designate any inmate or inmates of any of the institutions in the department of correction to perform work, labor and services in and upon the grounds and building or in and upon any public work or improvement under the charge of such other department. And such inmates when so employed shall at all times be under the personal oversight and direction of a keeper or keepers from the department of correction, but no inmate of any correctional institution shall be employed in any ward of any hospital, except hospitals in penal institutions, while such ward is being used for hospital purposes. The provisions of this act or of law requiring advertisement for bids or proposals, or the awarding of contracts, for work to be done or supplies to be furnished for any of said departments shall not be applicable to public work which may be done or to the supplies which may be furnished under the provisions of the prison law.

SEC. 702. The hours of labor required of any inmate of any institution under the charge of the commissioner shall be fixed by the commissioner. In case any person confined in any institution in the department shall neglect or refuse to perform the work allotted to him by the officer in charge of such institution, or shall willfully violate the rules and regulations established by the commissioner or resist and disobey any lawful command, or in case any such person shall offer violence to any such officer or to any other prisoner, or shall do or attempt to do any injury to such institution or the appurtenances thereof or any property therein, or shall attempt to escape, or shall combine with any one or more persons for any of the aforesaid purposes, the officer or officers of such institution shall use all the suitable means to defend themselves, to enforce discipline, to secure the persons of the offenders and to prevent any such attempt or escape, and it shall be the duty of the officer in charge of such institution in which such person or persons is or are confined to punish him or them by solitary confinement, and by being fed on bread and water only, for such length of time as may be considered necessary; but no other form of punishment shall be imposed, and no officer of any such institution shall inflict any blows whatever upon any prisoner except in self-defense or to suppress a revolt or insurrection. In every case the officer imposing such punishment shall forthwith report the same to the commissioner and notify the physician of the institution. It shall be the duty of such physician to visit the person so confined and to examine daily into the state of his health until he shall be released from solitary confinement and return to labor, and to report to the commissioner and to the officer in charge of such institution whenever in his judgment the health of the prisoner shall require that he should be released.



## LEADING ARTICLES IN PAST NUMBERS OF THE BULLETIN.

- No. 1. Private and public debt in the United States, by George K. Holmes.  
Employer and employee under the common law, by V. H. Olmsted and S. D. Fessenden.
- No. 2. The poor colonies of Holland, by J. Howard Gore, Ph. D.  
The industrial revolution in Japan, by William Eleroy Curtis.  
Notes concerning the money of the U. S. and other countries, by W. C. Hunt.  
The wealth and receipts and expenses of the U. S., by W. M. Steuart.
- No. 3. Industrial communities: Coal Mining Co. of Anzin, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 4. Industrial communities: Coal Mining Co. of Blanzky, by W. F. Willoughby.  
The sweating system, by Henry White.
- No. 5. Convict labor.  
Industrial communities: Krupp Iron and Steel Works, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 6. Industrial communities: Familistère Society of Guise, by W. F. Willoughby.  
Cooperative distribution, by Edward W. Bemis, Ph. D.
- No. 7. Industrial communities: Various communities, by W. F. Willoughby.  
Rates of wages paid under public and private contract, by Ethelbert Stewart.
- No. 8. Conciliation and arbitration in the boot and shoe industry, by T. A. Carroll.  
Railway relief departments, by Emory R. Johnson, Ph. D.
- No. 9. The padrone system and padrone banks, by John Koren.  
The Dutch Society for General Welfare, by J. Howard Gore, Ph. D.
- No. 10. Condition of the Negro in various cities.  
Building and loan associations.
- No. 11. Workers at gainful occupations at censuses of 1870, 1880, and 1890, by W. C. Hunt.  
Public baths in Europe, by Edward Mussey Hartwell, Ph. D., M. D.
- No. 12. The inspection of factories and workshops in the U. S., by W. F. Willoughby.  
Mutual rights and duties of parents and children, guardianship, etc., under the law, by F. J. Stimson.  
The municipal or cooperative restaurant of Grenoble, France, by C. O. Ward.
- No. 13. The anthracite mine laborers, by G. O. Virtue, Ph. D.
- No. 14. The Negroes of Farmville, Va.: A social study, by W. E. B. Du Bois, Ph. D.  
Incomes, wages, and rents in Montreal, by Herbert Brown Ames, B. A.
- No. 15. Boarding homes and clubs for working women, by Mary S. Fergusson.  
The trade-union label, by John Graham Brooks.
- No. 16. Alaskan gold fields and opportunities for capital and labor, by S. C. Dunham.
- No. 17. Brotherhood relief and insurance of railway employees, by E. R. Johnson, Ph. D.  
The nations of Antwerp, by J. Howard Gore, Ph. D.
- No. 18. Wages in the United States and Europe, 1870 to 1898.
- No. 19. Alaskan gold fields and opportunities for capital and labor, by S. C. Dunham.  
Mutual relief and benefit associations in the printing trade, by W. S. Waudby.
- No. 20. Condition of railway labor in Europe, by Walter E. Weyl, Ph. D.
- No. 21. Pawnbroking in Europe and the United States, by W. R. Patterson, Ph. D.
- No. 22. Benefit features of American trade unions, by Edward W. Bemis, Ph. D.  
The Negro in the black belt: Some social sketches, by W. E. B. Du Bois, Ph. D.  
Wages in Lyon, France, 1870 to 1896.
- No. 23. Attitude of women's clubs, etc., toward social economics, by Ellen M. Henrotin.  
The production of paper and pulp in the U. S. from Jan. 1 to June 30, 1898.
- No. 24. Statistics of cities.
- No. 25. Foreign labor laws: Great Britain and France, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 26. Protection of workmen in their employment, by Stephen D. Fessenden.  
Foreign labor laws: Belgium and Switzerland, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 27. Wholesale prices: 1890 to 1899, by Roland P. Falkner, Ph. D.  
Foreign labor laws: Germany, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 28. Voluntary conciliation and arbitration in Great Britain, by J. B. McPherson.  
System of adjusting wages, etc., in certain rolling mills, by J. H. Nutt.  
Foreign labor laws: Austria, by W. F. Willoughby.



- No. 29. Trusts and industrial combinations, by J. W. Jenks, Ph. D.  
The Yukon and Nome gold regions, by S. C. Dunham.  
Labor Day, by Miss M. C. de Graffenried.
- No. 30. Trend of wages from 1891 to 1900.  
Statistics of cities.  
Foreign labor laws: Various European countries, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 31. Betterment of industrial conditions, by V. H. Olmsted.  
Present status of employers' liability in the U. S., by S. D. Fessenden.  
Condition of railway labor in Italy, by Dr. Luigi Einaudi.
- No. 32. Accidents to labor as regulated by law in the U. S., by W. F. Willoughby.  
Prices of commodities and rates of wages in Manila.  
The Negroes of Sandy Spring, Md.: A social study, by W. T. Thom, Ph. D.  
The British Workmen's Compensation Act and its operation, by A. M. Low.
- No. 33. Foreign labor laws: Australasia and Canada, by W. F. Willoughby.  
The British Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act and its operation, by A. M. Low.
- No. 34. Labor conditions in Porto Rico, by Azel Ames, M. D.  
Social economics at the Paris Exposition, by Prof. N. P. Gilman.  
The workmen's compensation act of Holland.
- No. 35. Cooperative communities in the United States, by Rev. Alexander Kent.  
The Negro landholder of Georgia, by W. E. B. Du Bois, Ph. D.
- No. 36. Statistics of cities.  
Statistics of Honolulu, H. I.
- No. 37. Railway employees in the United States, by Samuel McCune Lindsay, Ph. D.  
The Negroes of Litwalton, Va.: A social study of the "Oyster Negro," by William Taylor Thom, Ph. D.